

THE
ANALYTICAL REVIEW.

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1798.

VOYAGES. TRAVELS.

ART. I. *A Voyage round the World, in the Years 1785, 1786, 1787, and 1788*, by J. F. G. de la Pérouse: published conformably to the Decree of the National Assembly, of the 22d of April, 1791, and edited by M. L. A. Milet-Mureau, Brigadier-General in the Corps of Engineers, Director of Fortifications, Ex-constituent, and Member of several literary Societies at Paris. In three vols. 8vo. 1536 pages and 30 plates. Pl. 11. 16s. in boards. Johnson. 1798.

AMONG all the arts of human invention, there is none that redounds so much both to the glory and advantage of mankind, as that of navigation; none that has contributed so much to extend the boundaries of knowledge, to call forth the energies of the mind, to diffuse the bounties of nature and the improvements of art, and display the superiority of mankind, and the empire of reason. Were an intelligent being to make a visit from another planet to this earth, the most prominent feature in the various scene would be, the intercourse and connection of all quarters of the globe by means of an element apparently destined to divide them. From the canoe, in which the savage traverses the river, to the construction of a vessel capable of conveying a numerous crew to a distant coast, the improvement is immense. Among the nations of antiquity, the art of navigation scarcely advanced beyond it's infancy. Unacquainted with the polarity of the magnet, they had no other method of regulating their course than to observe the sun and stars: their sailing was, of course, uncertain and timid. They seldom quitted sight of land, but crept along the coast. It was only during the summer months that they ventured out of their harbours: whence an incredible length of time was necessary for performing voyages now accomplished in a short space. The progress of astronomy; a more perfect knowledge of the system of nature; the discovery of that property in the magnet, whereby it points to the poles; and a variety of mechanical inventions, have enabled the moderns to make voyages of discovery and commerce round the world.

From the time when a passage was found to India by the Cape of Good Hope, and America was discovered, a spirit of

navigation, for the purposes of commerce and colonization, has prevailed in all the great maritime nations. This spirit had begun to suffer languor and decay, when it was revived by the successive voyages of discovery, that are the greatest glory of the present reign in Britain. So animating an example produced its natural effect on an enterprising, scientific, and neighbouring nation. The last voyage of Cook was scarcely made known, by the tragical end of the illustrious chief of the expedition, when France, availing herself of the leisure afforded by a peace which she had just concluded, considered it as a duty annexed to her rank among the principal maritime powers, and still more to her zeal and abilities for the advancement of science, to plan a voyage of discovery, in order to concur in perfecting the knowledge of the globe. An expedition for this purpose, with preparations worthy of a munificent, and instructions for the direction of investigation worthy of an enlightened nation, sailed from Brest in two frigates, under the command of the *sieur de la Pérouse*, in 1785.

The work before us may be divided into two parts, less unequal in importance than in extent. First, the preparations that were made, instructions and hints that were given by the king, by the royal academy of sciences, and the medical society at Paris, to the commander of the expedition. Secondly, the proceedings and discoveries made in the course of the voyage, unfortunate to the lives of *Pérouse* and his companions, but not either to their fame, or the interests of science, or of society.

Under the head of preparations, we may mention the talents, experience, and virtues of *la Pérouse*; a biographical sketch of whom is given in a preliminary discourse by the french editor. *La Pérouse* was singularly qualified for the task committed to him, by skill in navigation, and other accomplishments; and also by that ease and affability of manners, that gain so much on the mind of man in every stage of society. The mechanics, artists, and men of science, that accompanied him, it appears, were chosen with equal judgment. In june, 1785, a note, drawn up in the name of the king, was given to *la Pérouse*, to serve as a particular instruction. This note was divided into five parts. The first part contains the route, or plan of the voyage, according to the order of the discoveries it was intended to make, or to carry into perfection: and to this is joined, a collection of historical and geographical notes, calculated to guide him in the various inquiries to which he would devote himself. But his majesty, relying on his experience and judgment, authorized him to make the changes that should appear to him necessary in the cases not foreseen, provided he should keep as near as might be to the plan traced out to him; of which plan, the general spirit was, to strike as much as possible into new tracts. The second part of his majesty's note relates to objects of policy and commerce. Among these we find an instruction, 'to satisfy himself whether the english have entirely evacuated the island of *Trinidad*; whether the portuguese be established there; and in what consists the establishment the latter may have formed there since the evacuation.' As *Russia* does not extend her dominion farther

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than to those of the Kurile islands nearest to Kamschatka, he is directed to examine whether, in the number of southerly and independent isles, there be not one remaining, upon which, in the supposition of a commerce in skins and furs, to be opened with France, it would be possible to form an establishment or factory, which might be rendered secure from any insult on the part of the islanders. It appears also, that the french government wished to make a settlement on the island of Japan.

With regard to the islands of the great equatorial ocean, he had it in charge principally to attend to the climate and productions of every kind, where he might land, 'to learn the manners and customs of the natives, their religion, the form of their government, their manner of making war, their weapons, their vessels, the distinctive character of each tribe, whatever they may have in common with other savage nations, as well as with civilized people, and principally for what each, in particular, is remarkable. Of those islands where the europeans have already been, he will endeavour to learn, whether the natives of the country have distinguished the different nations which have visited them, and he will try to get out of them what opinion they may have of each of them in particular.' The french nation have been long sensible of the political advantage of treating all nations and tribes, and even their slaves, with humanity. The rudeness and ferocity of other nations give the french, in several respects, great advantages over them. These, and other particulars under this head, in the note, are very interesting; as giving hints of the designs of France: which, though formed in the time of the monarchy, will, probably, recur to the republic: since, from habits, and local and political relations, there are certain objects, that will always be considered as the interests of the french empire. The third part of the note contains operations relating to astronomy, to geography, to navigation, to natural philosophy, and different branches of natural history. From this part of his majesty's note, the following is an extract: 'The sieur de la Pérouse, in the course of his voyages, and his stay in port, must cause a journal to be kept on board each ship, of all the observations relative to the wind and weather, the currents, the variations of the atmosphere, and all that concerns meteorology. During his stay in harbour, he should cause observations to be made on the genius, the character, the manners, the customs, the temperament, the language, the government, and the numbers of the inhabitants.

'He should have the soil, and the productions of the different countries, examined, and every thing which relates to mineralogy:

'He should have the natural curiosities collected, as well terrestrial as marine: he will have them classed in their order, and have a descriptive catalogue for each species; in which ought to be mentioned, the place where they have been found, the use which the natives of the country make of them, and, if they be plants, of the virtues which they attribute to them.

'He should, in like, collect and class the clothes, the arms, the ornaments, the pieces of furniture, the implements, the musical

musical instruments, and all the effects used by the different people he may visit; and each object ought to have a ticket or label on it, with a number, corresponding with that of the catalogue.

‘He will get drawn, by the draughtsmen embarked in the two frigates, all the views of the land, and the remarkable situations, portraits of the natives of the different countries, their manner of dress, their ceremonies, their pastimes, their edifices, their vessels, and all the productions of the earth and of the sea, if the drawings of these different objects should appear to him of any use in facilitating the comprehension of the descriptions the scientific men have made of them.’ The fourth part gives directions concerning the conduct to be observed with the natives of the countries, where the two frigates may make a landing. The last of which is as follows: ‘His majesty will look upon it as one of the most successful parts of the expedition, that it may be terminated without costing the life of a single man.’ The fifth part of the note contains precautions to be taken for preserving the healths of the crews.

This memoir, or note, as well as the geographical and historical notes with which it is followed, were written by the ex-minister of the marine, Fleurieu, and show how far scientific motives prevailed in determining this expedition.

A letter was sent, by order of the king, from the marechal de Castries to Mr. de Condorcet, perpetual secretary of the academy of sciences, dated at Versailles, March, 1783. ‘Sir, the king having come to the resolution to employ two of his frigates in a voyage, which may, at the same time, realize objects beneficial for his service, and furnish more extensive means of perfecting the knowledge and the description of the terrestrial globe, I could wish the academy of sciences would cause to be drawn up a memoir, detailing distinctly, and at some length, the different physical, astronomical, geographical, and other observations, which may be thought most convenient and important to be made, as well by sea, in the course of the voyage, as upon the lands and islands which may be touched at. To direct the views of the academy to the plan which it may adopt in this respect, I am to inform you, sir, that the ships of his majesty will have orders to proceed as far to the north and south as the sixtieth parallel, and that they will traverse the entire circumference of the globe, in respect to its longitude. The academy, therefore, may include in it’s speculation nearly the totality of the known coasts or islands, and the whole extent of the surface of the sea on both sides, comprehended between the two great masses of land which form the continents.’

A memoir was accordingly drawn up by the academy of sciences, ‘for the use and direction of the learned and scientific persons embarked under the orders of Mr. de la Pérouse.’ The observations made, and the inquiries recommended in this memoir, are reduced to the following heads: 1. Geometry, astronomy, and mechanics. 2. Physics. 3. Chemistry. 4. Anatomy. 5. Zoology. 6. Mineralogy. 7. Botany. 8. Examinations of the nature of the air. 9. Examinations of water.

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The questions proposed by the society of medicine to the gentlemen who were to accompany la Pérouse related, 1. To anatomy and physiology. 2. Hygiene, or, the air, water, aliments, habitations, clothing, exercises, and the passions, as far as they concern the health of men. 3. Diseases. 4. The materia medica. 5. Surgery. A series of questions on these subjects is followed by 'a sketch of experiments to be made for preserving the water on ship-board from corruption, communicated to Mr. de la Pérouse, captain of the navy, about to make a voyage round the world, by Mr. l'abbé Teflier, of the academy of sciences, and of the society of medicine.' This sketch is founded on very extensive knowledge, and is a valuable present to all nautical people.

Next comes a memoir for directing the gardener in the occupations and duties of his voyage round the world, by Mr. Thouin, first gardener of the botanic garden. This memoir is naturally divided into two parts: the contents of part I—the choice, nature, and culture of the vegetables, which may be transported from France; the contents of part II—directions for gathering such vegetables as may be useful to Europe, and for their preservation during the voyage.

We have next, an account of the articles necessary for the gardener during his voyage; with a list of the seeds, and the quantity necessary to be bought for sowing in the various places chosen for cultivation. This list is divided, first, into substances which may be eaten without preparation: secondly, substances which need no other preparation for eating than to be roasted: thirdly, into productions which are not eatable, unless boiled, and, on that account, are proper only for those people who have convenient vessels for cooking them. The english reader will, probably, be surprized at certain maxims in this list, relating to cookery, and the want of cookery. Among the substances that may be eaten without preparation, we find artichokes; and among those that require boiling, cucumbers and tobacco!

We are now presented with an inventory of the merchandize and effects embarked on board the ships under the orders of Mr. de la Pérouse, for making presents and exchanges: next, with a summary account of the instruments of astronomy, of navigation, of natural philosophy, of chemistry, and others, for the use of the scientific persons and artists employed in the voyage of discoveries; then a catalogue of books of voyages, of astronomy, of navigation, of natural philosophy, and others, consigned to Mr. de la Pérouse, for the use of the officers and scientific men embarked under his orders; and, lastly, with a list of the names of the officers, scientific men, artists, and sailors, embarked on board the frigates la Boussole and l'Astrolabe. In this last article, we have a curious exemplification of the quick and various influence of government on customs, manners, and ways of thinking. The french editor says, in his preface, 'I have not confined myself to the custom of publishing the names of the officers, and men of science, alone, who make up a part of such expeditions: the publication of an exact list of the ships companies appears to me

to be an act more conformable to justice, and to the principles of the french government.'

When we compare the views that directed the instructions given, and the questions proposed to la Pérouse and his associates, in 1785, with those laid before captain Cook and his companions, and other preceding circumnavigators, before the scientific people of this and other countries, we are obliged to acknowledge the superiority of the french, both in respect to the knowledge of facts, and those ingenious and feasible hypothetical theories, which serve to direct future inquiries. A series of such ingenious and profound questions has not been proposed, since the *Novum Organum* of lord Bacon.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Eton's Survey of the Turkish Empire.* [Concluded from p. 5.]

THE main design of this publication, we have already seen, is to excite a hostile indignation against the turks, a bigoted, barbarous, and brutal people, whose dominion was founded in tyrannical force, but who are now from a general relaxation in government, and military discipline and valour, ripe for destruction, at least for expulsion from Europe. In conformity with these ideas, Mr. E. endeavours to justify the aggressions and the designs of the russians; and is at much pains to show that the greeks, however depressed and contaminated by the vices of slavery, yet retain evident marks of their illustrious origin, and need only to be inspired by the breath of liberty, in order to be awakened again into all the glorious energies of ancient Greece. After a recapitulation of the prominent features of the ancient greeks, he says, 'such a nation could not have fallen under the yoke of a turkish conqueror, had she not been prepared for that disgrace by a long period of debasement and superstition.'

P. 337.—'Conquered Greece polished Rome, but the conquerors were romans. Conquered Greece did not polish Turkey, for the conquerors were turks. The insensibility of these barbarians is astonishing: living amid the effulgence of genius, they have not caught one spark; they gaze with unfeeling stupidity on the wonder and boast of art, on their glorious monuments, on their temples, and conclude they were built by genii, and then destroy them, to burn the marble for lime to make stucco for their own tasteless houses, whence the fine arts are banished; where ignorance, tyranny, superstition, and gross sensuality only dwell in sad and stupidly-solemn pomp, or issuing out with savage fury, lay waste the country round, and imbrue their hands in the blood of the helpless, murdering without remorse those they have conquered. Thus the finest countries in the world are become deserts; part inhabited by savage beasts, and part by more savage men; the poor aborigines, skulking in hiding places, like the timid hare (which epithet the turks give them in derision) while those beasts of prey roam abroad.'

'Every object, moral and physical, the fair face of nature, and the intellectual energies of the inhabitants, have alike been blasted and defiled by the harpy-touch of turkish tyranny. As an instance of those changes which the country has undergone, we need only consider the island of Cyprus, now an almost uninhabited desert, which

which was, not only in ancient times, but when it was taken by the turks from the venetians, populous and exceedingly rich. The gentry lived like princes, in splendor, and even the peasants had each of them at least a silver cup, spoon, knife, and fork. The number and excellency of its productions were wonderful. At present only a little cotton, some silk, and wine, and a few drugs, are its produce, all to no great amount. Even the salines (or salt-works) which were so great a branch of revenue and commerce to the venetians, have produced nothing since the turks possessed it.

Of the defects of the grecian character some are doubtless owing to their ancient corruptions; but most of them take their rise in the humiliating state of depression in which they are held by the turks. This degradation and servility of their situation has operated for centuries, and has consequently produced an accumulated effect on the mind; but were this weight taken off, the elasticity and vigour of the soul would have wide room for expansion; and though it cannot be expected that they would at once rise to the proud animation of their former heroes, they would doubtless display energies of mind, which the iron hand of despotism has long kept dormant and inert. It is rather astonishing that they have retained so much energy of character, and are not more abased; for, like noble coursers, they champ the bit, and spurn indignantly the yoke; when once freed from these, they will enter the course of glory. The truth of these observations will appear, whether we consider the greeks in their common character as one people, or whether we consider them according to their local and peculiar distinctions.

When we view the greeks in their more comprehensive character as a nation, their superiority over the turks in knowledge is surprisingly great; they possess a great degree of genius and invention, and are of so lively an imagination, that they cannot tell the same story twice without varying the embellishments of circumstance and diction; added to this, both men and women speak much, and with wonderful volubility and boldness, and no people are such natural orators; numbers of them speak italian, but all have an activity and sprightliness which strongly contrasts with the stupid and pompous gravity of the turks; an european feels himself as it were at home with them, and amongst creatures of his own species, for with mahomedans there is a distance, a non-assimilation, a total difference of ideas, and the more he knows their language, the more he perceives it; on the contrary, the more intimately he knows the greeks, the more similar does he find them in habits and manners to other europeans: their bad reputation is owing more to the slander of the french (their mortal enemies) than to so great a degree of demerit. In general, they are an agreeable and a serviceable people, but they are much given to levity, immoderately ambitious, and fond of honourable distinctions; but this very ambition, now a weakness, when they have nobler objects to pursue, will lead them to greatness.

R. 341.—They bear the turkish yoke with greater impatience than other christians (who have long ceased to struggle against it) and possess a spirit of enterprize, which, however ridiculed by some authors, often prompts them to noble achievements. Their ancient empire is fresh in their memory; it is the subject of their popular songs,

ongs, and they speak of it in common conversation as a recent event.

‘ That they possess a firm and manly courage, notwithstanding the insinuations of their calumniators, has been too often testified to be in the least doubtful; the instances which they have displayed in the russian service have been truly striking. They are passionate, and sometimes given to assassination; but, except in Zante and Cephalonia, the stileto is not so frequent with them as with the italians, whom they in general resemble, the best of them, if we add more energy, being very similar in character to the venetians, and the worst to the genoeese.

‘ The most observable difference in the grecian character is between those of Constantinople and their countrymen of the islands. The merchants and lower orders of the constantinopolitan greeks have, indeed, no very marked character; they are much the same as the trading christians in all parts of the empire, that is to say, as crafty and fraudulent as the jews, but less so than the armenians, who are the most subtle of all usurers.’

Mr. E. has not only had opportunities of learning the general character of the modern greeks, but the discriminative features of those of different places.

P. 345.—‘ Those of Macedonia, &c. are robust, courageous, and somewhat ferocious; those of Athens and Attica are still remarkably witty and sharp; all the islanders are lively and gay, fond of singing and dancing to an excess, affable, hospitable, and good-natured; in short, they are the best; those of the Morea are much given to piracy; but it is not to be wondered at, considering the cruel treatment they have met with, and the struggles they are continually making against the turks. Albania, Epirus, and in general the mountaineers, are a very warlike, brave people, but very savage, and make little scruple of killing and robbing travellers; a turk cannot venture in their country alone; there is no man in the country but would make a merit of shooting him—and is this to be wondered at?

‘ The greeks of Zante and Cephalonia, subject to the venetians, are famous for stabbing with knives.

‘ In some islands the people are not handsome. In Metaline, the women are remarkable for very large breasts. In Tino, the women are almost all beauties, and there the true antique head is to be found.

‘ In general, the people of the islands have grand and noble features. From different faces you may put together, in walking through a market-place, the heads of Apollo and of the finest ancient statues.’

Mr. E. gives a brief account of the efforts of the greeks of the Morea to regain their liberty, under the auspices of the empress of Russia, which were animated and heroic, but unsuccessful. The peace of 1774, between Russia and the Porte, stipulated an amnesty and indemnity to the greeks; but this stipulation was violated by a great massacre: the greeks again put themselves under the protection of that great princess, and sent a deputation demanding one of her grandsons for their emperor. When she died she was on the eve of attacking the turks. Had she lived, it is probable, that the greeks might have

have obtained an emperor ; but not, by any means, the full measure of their ancient freedom.

Mr. E., in a preface, apologizes for foreign idioms, and other inaccuracies and defects, which may be found in this work, in consequence of it's having been too hastily prepared for the press. After this apology, we should not have taken notice of the number and extent of such inaccuracies, if these had not, by far, exceeded the usual bounds of either inattention or barbarism. Foreign idioms may be easily excused, but errors against grammar occur in almost every page.—The book should be carefully revised, and these errors corrected, if ever it should come, as we doubt not but it soon will, to another edition.

ART. III. *Travels in the Two Sicilies, &c.* By the Abbé Spallanzani. [Concluded from our last Volume, p. 342.]

OUR philosophical traveller proceeds, in chap. xxiii, the beginning of vol. 4, to various other observations relative to the activity of volcanic fires : concerning which, two opinions are entertained by naturalists : some imagining that it must be very great, and others that it is extremely weak. Having weighed the arguments *pro* and *con*, he declares decidedly in favour of the former opinion. He acknowledges, at the same time, that our ideas of volcanic fires are far from being clear or distinct. With regard to the nature of their aliment, and the manner in which they act, independently of the concurrence of the atmospheric air, we are in great uncertainty. But of subterraneous conflagrations the probable cause and preservative, in the opinion of our author, is oxygenous gas ; a substance capable of producing singular combinations in the stony bodies which it invests, when mixed with other gasses and saline substances. It is possible, he also observes, that water, united to fire, may contribute to produce such combinations. Nothing can be more probable than this conjecture, which our learned abbé has adopted from the celebrated volcanist Faujas. The power of water to increase the fierceness of heat is known to every common smith, who always applies water to his furnace, when he has occasion to raise an intensity of heat. It is a little singular, that this fact, as decisive as the experiments of the greatest chemists, should have escaped the observation of Spallanzani.

In chap. xxiv, and the seven remaining chapters, our author passes from volcanoes, and chemico-mineralogy, to various subjects of another kind ; though connected with these by contiguity of space, and other relations. A farther account of the Eolian isles : the state in which he found Messina after the earthquake in 1783 : observations on Scylla and Charybdis : phosphorescent medusæ observed in the strait of Messina : other mollusca, the coral fishery : the fishery of the sword-fish, and of the dog-fish. These morsels of natural history will be very acceptable to students in nature ; but the accounts of the climate, soil, natural productions, customs, manners, and characters of the inhabitants of the Eolian island, will interest and amuse every reader, and may indeed suggest various useful hints to the rural economist, to the moralist, and to the legislator, who wishes to promote health, contentment, virtue, and population. From this part of the work before us, we shall, for the gratification of our readers in general, make a few extracts.

Vol. IV.

Vol. IV, P. 119.—The natives of this island [Lipari] are not wanting in natural abilities, but in the cultivation of them. The liparese are, in general, of a prompt and lively wit, ready to learn, of acute penetration, and extremely desirous of obtaining knowledge. Hence, when any learned stranger visits their island, there is no end to their questions and enquiries. They willingly become his guides to their stoves and baths; and there is not one among them who is ignorant that his country was once produced by fire. The seat of the court of king Æolus is contested in the Eolian isles, as the birth-place of Homer is in Greece. He is claimed by each of the islands; but the people of Lipari are fully persuaded that the royal residence of this petty sovereign was in their island; and those among them who have some little tincture of literature, can cite the authority of Homer and other writers in proof of their assertion.

A beggar is scarcely ever to be found in Lipari; for even the poorest persons have some small piece of ground which they cultivate, and by the produce of which they live.

The natives are usually robust, strong, rather of a large size, and comely. When young they have fine complexions; but fatigue will diminish every kind of beauty, even that of the fair sex. This change is greatly accelerated by the heat of the sun; the effects of which are conspicuous in their tanned skins and swarthy countenances.

If it was a disgrace in Greece to be unable to swim, it is not less shameful in Lipari, and the other Eolian isles, to be ignorant either of that art, or that of managing the oar, or steering and handling the sails of a vessel. The priests are very expert in every exercise of this kind. The greater part of them have, like the sailors, their arms or hands marked with black indelible stains representing either the crucifix, or some saint. I knew, at Lipari, a man of considerable property, and who was honoured with the title of baron, who was marked in this manner, having formerly been a mariner.

It must be owned that the occupations and *costume* of the liparian clergy are nearer a-kin to those of the first disciples and apostles, than the mitres, tiaras, coaches, livery servants, &c. of the priests of many other countries.

The bishop of Lipari, don Giuseppe Cippola, of Palermo, though one of the poorest, was one of the most exemplary of his order.

P. 101.—That worthy prelate seemed to have been born for the improvement of the soil of those countries, which before were wild, and little productive. The number of olive-trees which he caused to be planted is incredible. I found above three thousand in Panaria alone. He also introduced mulberry-trees there, which have thriven extremely well. I saw one in a court-yard, planted eight years ago, which, for size and strength, did not in the least yield to ours of the same age, though the latter have the advantage of a more suitable soil. He has likewise enriched the island with another species of the indian fig, brought from Palermo, the fruit of which is red, and extremely delicious. I sincerely wish his successor, who is unknown to me, may follow his excellent example.

This worthy minister of the Gospel told the abbé Spallanzani, that he had thoughts of attempting the cultivation of the island of Vulcano by sowing corn, and planting vines and fruit-trees.

P. 123.—‘The bishop likewise communicated to me another idea which I did not expect. He said he had conceived the design of building a seminary in that island, for the education of twelve youths, sons of the peasants, who should be brought up to the service of the cathedral, and of the parish churches of the other Eolian isles. He very justly thought that these youths, having been born and educated in the islands, would be better fitted for, and more attentive to, the discharge of such duties. Whether since the death of this prelate any attempts have been made to carry his useful plans into execution, I cannot say. The little disposition which those who succeed to any office usually shew to complete the projects of their predecessors, inclines me to think it very doubtful whether Vulcano will not still remain in its former deserted and barren state.’

P. 143.—‘The industry and patience of the people of Alicuda is incredible: they do not lose an inch of the ground they cultivate. There is scarcely a tract of cultivable land of a few perches in circuit, which is not interrupted with points of rocks, masses of lava, clefts, and crags: yet all these tracts they render productive: they turn and break them with pointed spades, and render every foot of them fruitful; on which account the Liparese say, jestingly, that the people of Alicuda till their lands with the point of a knife. It is certain, at the same time, that in all the Eolian isles there is no better bread than that made in Alicuda. I have tasted it, and can affirm that it is most excellent.’

P. 145.—‘At Felicuda, when the husband or wife died, it was a custom considered as a kind of sacred duty for the nearest relations to follow the body to the grave with loud and immoderate lamentations, and, as soon as the obsequies were finished, to throw themselves upon the corpse, embrace it, kiss it, speak to it with a loud voice, and give commissions for the other world. This ridiculous practice, which is not modern, has been abolished by the present priest.’

This practice is still common in Dalmatia, and other countries on the confines of Turkey in Europe, in Tatary, in Russia, and in some parts of Ireland, and of the highlands and islands of Scotland.

‘In neither of these islands [Alicuda and Felicuda] is there a single spring of fresh water. The inhabitants are therefore obliged to have recourse to the rain water they can preserve in cisterns; and when it happens not to rain for several months, their distress is extreme.’

P. 147.—‘It is incredible, at the same time, how contented these islanders are amid all their poverty. Ulysses, perhaps, cherished not a greater love for his Ithaca, than they bear to their Eolian rocks, which, wretched as they may appear, they would not exchange for the Fortunate Islands. Frequently have I entered their huts, which seem like the nests of birds hung to the cliffs. They are framed of pieces of lava ill joined together, equally destitute of ornament within and without, and scarcely admit a feeble uncertain light, like some gloomy caves. Sometimes I have been present at their wretched meals, set out in coarse dishes, or on the bare ground on which they sat, and consisting of black barley bread, and wild fruits, and, sometimes, by way of dainty, some salt-fish, and pure water to quench their thirst. Attending only to the first impressions of the scene, I thought I beheld the perfect image of wretchedness and misery: but, on more mature consideration, I discovered in these rude huts, and in the midst of this hard fare, an enviable happiness

happiness, which, I doubt, is not to be found in the palaces of the great, or among the delicious viands of royal tables. A cheerfulness and perfect tranquillity shone in the countenances of these poor people, and evidently possessed their hearts. Their ruinous cottages, which must be viewed with pity and contempt by the rich and great, to them were dear; and the food, which the luxurious would have rejected as insipid or nauseous, to their palates had an exquisite flavour. But the frugal meals of these islanders are always seasoned with a sauce which never accompanies the dishes at the tables of the great, I mean hunger and thirst, which render every meat delicious, and every beverage grateful. The labour of their hands and the sweat of their brow secure an exquisite relish for their scanty fare.

As to the content and tranquillity of these islanders, and the affection they bear their native country, I do not think I should greatly err, were I to ascribe it to the happy temperature of the climate, and the quality of the air, which, when pure, so much contributes to maintain in us the proper harmony between the solids and the fluids, or the state of perfect health. A proof of this I experienced in myself. Notwithstanding the continual and great fatigues I underwent in my excursions among those rocks, and notwithstanding my advanced age, I felt in myself an energy and vigour of body, an agility and liveliness of mind, and a certain animation of my whole frame, which I had experienced no where else, except on the summit of mount Etna. In countries infested with impure air, and thick vapours, I have never been able to apply myself to my favourite studies immediately after dinner; but, under this sky, which is so rarely overclouded with vapours, I could write on the spot, at any time, a part of those observations I am now about to present to the public. How immense the difference between this most pure and almost celestial air, and the foetid and foggy atmosphere of some of the low plains of Lombardy, surrounded by stagnant and filthy waters, and unhealthy rice-grounds, producing continual clouds and fogs in winter, and obstinate fevers in summer; where the spirits are depressed, and rendered dull; and where, to complete the catalogue of ills and inconveniences, innumerable hosts of frogs, in the warm season, both by night and day, deafen the ear with their incessant croakings!

A friend to the progress of knowledge has frequent occasions of mortification, in finding not only variations, but absolute contradictions, respecting the results of experiments professedly performed in the same manner. For example: one writer on agriculture shall tell you, that on a clayey loam he made such and such experiments, with such and such effects; and another, that he, on a clayey loam, made the same or similar experiments with different effects. The character of *loam*, whether of the gravelly or clayey kind, is so general, vague, and indefinite, that between soils denominated loams, there may be the widest difference: The accurate chemical agriculturist examines all the different kinds of earth that enter into the composition of any portion or plot of land; how much magnesia, how much sand, how much of the argillaceous or clayey kind, how much of the calcareous, or what is commonly called lime; and when he has added to a knowledge of these, that of other particulars of climate, situation, aspect, or exposure, the crops under which the land has been laid, the vegetables it would naturally

naturally produce, if left to itself, &c., he enumerates the whole of these important circumstances in which his experiments was made; and, in proportion as the circumstances in which another makes a similar experiment coincide, in that proportion he may expect to find a similarity and coincidence of effect. What such an experimenter is in agriculture, Spallanzani is in chemico-mineralogy.

The ancients, almost all of them, and too many of the moderns, even after the example has been so long set, of the true method of investigation, from an impatience in the study of particulars, often indeed connected with the consciousness of superior ability, laboured to persuade themselves that, by a life devoted to abstract meditation, general ideas and principles may be rendered as immediate objects of intellectual perception, as the individuals which compose the material world are of our external senses.

While the vivacity of some cannot submit to that steady and laborious exertion of the understanding, which the study of philosophy requires, others persevere with wonderful industry in amassing collections of facts on facts, without aught of that sublimity of views, which directs the inquiries of the man of genius. If, on the one hand, there be mystics, there are, on the other, mere empirics. Characteristical propensities of this kind are found not only among individuals, but among different nations. The french, with great acuteness and fancy, are prone to run into hypothetical theories. The germans, though many of them have shown the highest degree of poetical fancy, yet, on the whole, are addicted to a copiation, repetition, and multiplication of solitary circumstances and facts, equally useless and endless. Two nations for more than two hundred years have started about the same time, and ever since gone hand in hand in a happy medium between those extremes; the true mode of philosophizing by induction and literary experience. These nations, the reader anticipates in our observations, are the english and the italians. If this last nation, divided into several independent states, shall happily unite the blessings of peace with those of well-regulated freedom, there will be reason to expect a large and early harvest of all kinds of improvement. H. H.

TRANSACTIONS OF SOCIETIES.

ART. IV. *Transactions of the Linnean Society. Vol. III.* 4to. 343 p. 17 plain and 6 coloured plates. Price 1l. 5s. in boards. Whites. 1797.

THIS volume opens with a paper containing observations on *sphinx apiformis* and *crabroniformis*, and *phalana trifolii*, Fab. illustrated by two plates; communicated by the late Mr. William Lewin, who fell a victim to his unremitting exertions for the progress of natural history.

To those who know, that the history of subterraneous and internal feeders consists, even now, with very few exceptions, of mere fragments, the first part of this paper will appear uncommonly valuable; we shall therefore transcribe the curious, though too concise, account of Mr. L. for their use.

1. *Sphinx*

P. 1.—‘ 1. *Sphinx apiformis*. Linn. Tab. 1. Fig. 1—3. The *larva* of this insect feeds in the bark of the poplar tree, near the bottom, and changes to a *pupa* in april, in the cavity it has eaten out, enclosing itself in a case formed of small pieces of the wood. The perfect fly comes forth in june. The male may be readily distinguished by its anus being slightly tufted. The margins of its wings are also darker, and not near so broad as in the female, which is moreover the larger of the two.

‘ I have found these *larvæ* of different sizes in march. I took two of the smallest, and, making a hole in the bark of a lime tree, put them in and enclosed them. The following spring they were found arrived at their full size, and they afterwards changed to *pupæ* at the usual time. They had fed only on the inner part of the bark, without touching the wood, just as they do in their usual food the poplar, though the lime tree bark is not half so thick.

‘ This species is distinguished from the following by its mode of life, and difference of colour. It is also much bigger. The head is wholly yellow, the pectinated part of the *antennæ* orange, and the markings on the thorax much larger than in the *crabroniformis*, and nearly square. Neither is the whole insect of so dark a hue.

‘ 2. *Sphinx crabroniformis*.

‘ *The Lunar Hornet*.

‘ Tab. 1. Fig. 6—10.

‘ *Sph. abdomine flavo incisurarum marginibus atris, thorace nigro maculis obsoletis flavis, capite nigro basi annulo flavo.*

‘ The *larva* feeds on the wood of the fallow, *salix caprea*, in the heart of which it spins itself up in november, but does not change to a *pupa* till may following. The fly comes out in the middle of july.

‘ This *larva* enters the wood near the surface of the ground, sometimes from the root, and feeds upwards (generally in the pith) for the space of six or eight inches; after which it turns its head downwards, and spins itself up with the web, there waiting the proper time to change.

‘ From several years attention to this subject, I think the caterpillar does not enter the wood till the second year of its own age; as among all the numerous *larvæ* I have found from june to november, I could perceive but a slight difference in size. Probably therefore they may feed on the tender bark of the fallow root the first year after they are hatched; and it seems they eat into the wood about june.

It is not easily accounted for why Mr. L., after taking such pains with the *larvæ* of these *sphinxes*, should have been so careless about the peculiar formation of their *pupæ*, without which, considering the depth of the canal whence the sphinx is to rise, its final evolution could not possibly take place. The *pupa* of the *sphinx apiformis*, such as we have seen it, and such as it is represented by *Esper*, and *Capienx* in the *Naturforscher*, is of a mellow, yellowish

yellowish brown; furnished with points on the head, between the eyes and at the wings; it has on each segment a double row of dorsal hooks turned downwards, and diminishing in size as they approach the tail point, which is obtuse, and armed with a number of black teeth: by the help of these cramps, the pupa, alternately pressing against the sides of it's nidus and turning round, rises to the orifice of the canal, emerges with the upper part of it's body, but remains fixed to the spot by the teeth of it's tail-point, till the sphinx is ready to burst it's cover. A similar formation, and for the same end, has been given by nature to the pupa of *bombyx cossus*, and, if we may judge from analogy, probably to the pupa of every larva that feeds on the pith of trees, and waits it's final transformation beneath their bark.

The second part of this paper contains a short account of the *bombyx trifolii* of Fabricius, which, with the plate, will appear superfluous, were the insect even less common than it really is, to those who are possessed of Sepp's circumstantial description and admirable figures. What deserves most attention is the description and figure of *ichneumon chrysopus*, produced from one pupa; which however cannot be considered as confined in it's depredations to this species.

II. The second paper, communicated by Arthur Bruce, esq., relates the curious fact, attested by the gardener and butler of lord Airly, of the common mole's (*talpa europææ*) ability of crossing the water in quest of a better situation.

III. *A History of Three Species of Cassida.* By the rev. William Kirby of Barham.—They are *liriophora*, perhaps *viridis*, and *maculata*; with latin characteristics and descriptions.

IV. *Observations relating to the Migration of Birds.* By Edmund Lambert, Esq. of Boyton near Heytesbury, Wilts, &c.—The birds here noticed, are the swallow, goatsucker, woodcock, snipe, royston crow, fieldfare, redwing, landrail, and waterwagtail.

V. *Account of the Canis Graius Hibernicus, or Irish Wolf Dog.* By A. B. Lambert, Esq. F. R. with a Plate.

VI. *The Botanical History of Mentha exigua.* By the President.

VII. *Observations on the Economy of the Ichneumon Manifestator Lin.* By Th. Marsham, Esq. with a Plate.—This paper contains many acute and exact remarks on the operations of that fly, in it's scrutiny of the repositories of *apis maxillosa*. The plate is excellent.

VIII. *Description of a new Species of Opercularia.* By Mr. Tho. Young. With a Plate.

IX. *Descriptions of eight new Fishes from Sumatra.* By Mr. Mungo Park.—The species described are; *chaetodon canaliculatus*, *chaetodon trifasciatus*, *perca lunulata*, with a plate; *perca anata*, *perca sumatrensis*, *scomber filamentosus*, *balistes niger*, *balistes undulatus*.

X. *Lindsæa; a new Genus of Ferns.* By Jonas Dryander. With five Plates.

XI. *On a Species of Tellina, not described by Linnæus.* By W. G. Maton.

XII. *Ob-*

XII. *Observations upon the Generic Character of Ulea, with Descriptions of some new Species.* By T. J. Woodward.

XIII. *Account of a Species of Bark, the original Quina-Quina of Peru, &c.* By J. Hawkins, Esq. of Dorchester. With a Plate.—Of so interesting a product of nature, we cannot forbear extracting the succinct but precise account of the author.

p. 59.—‘ There is a famous tree, besides the peruvian bark (*cinchona officinalis* of Linnæus), known in several provinces of South America, under the name of *quina-quina*, and in the province of Maynas, on the banks of the river Marannon, under that of *Tatchi*. A fragrant resin distills from the trunk by means of an incision. The seeds, called by the spaniards *pepitas de quina-quina*, have the form of beans, or of flat almonds, and are enclosed in a kind of doubled leaf, between which and the seed is found a little of the same resin that distills from the tree. Their chief use is to make fumigations, which are reputed cordial and wholesome, but their reputation is much less now than formerly.

‘ This tree grows plentifully in several provinces of High Peru, as in the neighbourhood of Chucuisaca, or la Plata, Tarija, Misque, Lipes, &c. The natives make rolls or masses of the resin, which they sell at Potosi and Chucuisaca, where they serve not only to fumigate or perfume with, but also for several other uses in physic, sometimes under the form of a plaster, sometimes under that of a compound oil made from the resin. This substance is supposed to promote perspiration, strengthen the nerves, and to restore the motion of the joints in gouty people, by barely carrying in the hand and continually handling it, without any preparation, of which many instances are recorded. The turks apply their *caddarum* to the very same use.

‘ It is wonderful, that the bark of *loxa* (*cinchona officinalis*) should have been called in Europe, and every other part of the world except its native place, by the name of *quina-quina*, which name properly belongs to the tree we are mentioning, always called *quina-quina* by the natives, and afterwards by the spaniards when they first became acquainted with it. Among the several virtues attributed to this tree, the most considerable is that of its bark, which passed for an excellent febrifuge, and, before the discovery of the tree of *loxa*, was in great repute for curing tertian agues, &c. The jesuits of *la Paz* or Chucuyapu gathered its bark, which is intensely bitter, very carefully, and used to send it to Rome, where it was distributed under the true name of *quina-quina*, and used for the cure of intermittent fevers. It seems that the bark of *loxa* having passed into Europe, particularly to Rome, by the same means, the new febrifuge has been confounded with the old one, and that of *loxa* having been most used, has retained the name of the first, which is now-a-days almost entirely forgotten. The name *cascarilla*, or small bark, given to that of *loxa*, seems to have been invented in order to distinguish it from some other, undoubtedly the ancient *quina-quina*.

‘ Tab. 12, represents the ancient *quina-quina*, etched by Mr. Hawkins from the original specimen in 1741, and which is here
re-

re-engraved, the old plate being lost. The stalk (A) is triangular, furrowed and pithy, emitting branches alternately, with a leafy wing running along every angle, like a three edged sword-blade, terminating here and there in a rounded form. These wings are thick, and curiously veined. When steeped in hot water, in order to expand them, they become covered all over with a white powdery substance (probably from the resin which the water could not dissolve). (B) is a transverse section of the stem and leaves; (C) the seeds, of a brown colour and woody substance.

XIV. *Natural History of Perca Scandens.* By Lieutenant Daldorff of Tranquebar, &c.—The latin account of this singular fish, that climbs trees and perambulates shores, appears to be the work of an accurate observer.

XV. *The specific Characters of some minute Shells discovered on the Coast of Pembrokehire, with an Account of a new marine Animal.* By John Adams, Esq. With a Plate.—The marine animal here described appears to constitute a new genus among the *vermes zoophyta*.

XVI. *On the latin Terms used in Natural History.* By the Rev. John Brand.—A classical defence of the barbarisms, invented by the framers of systems, and adopted by their followers.

XVII. *Additional Observations on the British Species of Carex.* By the Rev. S. Goodenough. With a Plate.

XVIII. *A Description of the Porbeagle Shark, the Squalus Cornubicus of Gmelin.* By the same. With a Plate.

XIX. *Observations on the British Fuci, &c.*—This is a considerable treatise; with plates.

XX. *Description of Ulva Punctata.* By J. Stackhouse, Esq.

XXI. *Observations on the Genus of Porella, and the Phascum caulescens of Linnaeus.* By Mr. J. Dickson. With a Plate.

XXII. *Description of the Ribes spicatum.* By Mr. Edward Robson. With a Plate.

XXIII. *Observations on the Insects that infested the Corn in the Year 1795; in a Letter, &c.* By T. Marsham, Esq. With a Plate.—This paper, which contains some correspondence, and is accompanied by a plate from a very elegant drawing communicated by Sir J. Banks, leaves the subject in question nearly where it found it.

XXIV. *Descriptions of Aetinia crassicornis and some British Shells.* By J. Adams.

XXV. *Botanical Characters of some Plants of the natural Order of Myrti.* By the President.

XXVI. *Observations on the Genus Oestrus.* By Mr. Bracy Clark, Veterinary Surgeon, &c. With a Plate.—Of this admirable paper it is not easy to speak in terms of sufficient praise, whether it be considered in a systematic, historic, philosophical, or medical point of view. It rectifies the errors of Linné, and disentangles the mazes of Fabricius; it traces the different species to their origin, and follows them in their progress; in a general view, it balances their good or ill effects on the animals that are subject to them, and details the most plausible means of preventing the evils they inflict, or promoting the benefits they may occasion. Where all invites, it is difficult to select, and as difficult to separate, where all appears

appears connected: an historical fragment, from the author's account of the *oestrus equi*, as least dependent on the assistance of figures, will furnish the reader with a specimen of Mr. Clark's method and manner, and best impress him with a desire of perusing the whole of the paper, which, from its eminent usefulness, we cannot forbear wishing to see published separately.

P. 304.—‘ The mode pursued by the parent fly to obtain for its young a situation in the stomach of the horse is truly singular, and is effected in the following manner:—When the female has been impregnated, and the eggs are sufficiently matured, she seeks among the horses a subject for her purpose, and, approaching it on the wing, she holds her body nearly upright in the air, and her tail, which is lengthened for the purpose, curved inwards and upwards: in this way she approaches the part where she designs to deposit the egg; and suspending herself for a few seconds before it, suddenly darts upon it, and leaves the egg adhering to the hair: she hardly appears to settle, but merely touches the hair with the egg held out on the projected point of the abdomen. The egg is made to adhere by means of a glutinous liquor secreted with it. She then leaves the horse at a small distance, and prepares a second egg, and positing herself before the part, deposits it in the same way. The liquor dries, and the egg becomes firmly glued to the hair: this is repeated by various flies till 4 or 500 eggs are sometimes placed on one horse.

‘ The horses, when they become used to this fly, and find it does them no injury, as the *tabani* and *conopses*, by sucking their blood, hardly regard it, and do not appear at all aware of its insidious object.

‘ The skin of the horse is always thrown into a tremulous motion on the touch of this insect, which merely arises from the very great irritability of the skin and cutaneous muscles at this season of the year *, occasioned by the continual teasing of the flies, till at length these muscles act involuntarily on the slightest touch of any body whatever.

‘ The inside of the knee is the part on which these flies are most fond of depositing their eggs, and, next to this, on the side and back part of the shoulder, and, less frequently, on the extreme ends of the hairs of the mane. But it is a fact worthy of attention, that the fly does not place them promiscuously about the body, but constantly on those parts which are most liable to be licked with the tongue; and the *ova* therefore are always scrupulously placed within its reach. Whether this be an act of reason or instinct, it is certainly a very remarkable one. I should suspect, with Dr. Darwin †, it cannot be the latter, as that ought to direct the performance of any act in one way only.

‘ Whichever of these it may be, it is, without doubt, one of the strongest examples of pure instinct, or of the most circuitous reasoning any insect is capable of. The eggs thus deposited, I at

* November.

† Zoönomia. Vol. Chapter on Instinct.

first supposed were loosened from the hairs by the moisture of the tongue, aided by its roughness, and were conveyed to the stomach, where they were hatched; but, on more minute search, I do not find this to be the case, or at least only by accident; for when they have remained on the hairs four or five days they become ripe, after which time the slightest application of warmth and moisture is sufficient to bring forth in an instant the latent *larva*. At this time, if the tongue of the horse touches the egg, its *operculum* is thrown open, and a small active worm is produced, which readily adheres to the moist surface of the tongue, and is from thence conveyed with the food to the stomach. If the egg itself be taken up by accident, it may pass on to the intestinal canal before it hatches; in which case its existence to the full growth is more precarious, and certainly not so agreeable, as it is exposed to the bitterness of the bile.

I have often, with a pair of scissars, clipped off some hairs with the eggs on them from the horse, and on placing them in the hand moistened with saliva, they have hatched in a few seconds. At other times, when not perfectly ripe, the *larva* would not appear though held in the hand under the same circumstances for several hours; a sufficient proof that the eggs themselves are not conveyed to the stomach.

It is fortunate for the animals infested by these insects, that their numbers are limited by the hazards they are exposed to. I should suspect near a hundred are lost for one that arrives at the perfect state of a fly. The eggs, in the first place, when ripe, often hatch of themselves, and the *larva*, without a *nidus*, crawls about till it dies; others are washed off by the water, or are hatched by the sun and moisture thus applied together.

When in the mouth of the animal they have the dreadful ordeal of the teeth and mastication to pass through. On their arrival at the stomach, they may pass, mixed with the mass of food, into the intestines; and, when full grown, on dropping from the *anus* to the ground, a dirty road or water may receive them.—If on the commons, they are in danger of being crushed to death, or being picked up by the birds who so constantly for food attend the footsteps of the cattle. Such are the contingencies by which Nature has wisely prevented the too great increase of their numbers, and the total destruction of the animals they feed on.

I have once seen the *larva* of this *oesirus* in the stomach of an ass: indeed there is little reason to doubt their existence in the stomachs of all this tribe of animals.

The perfect fly but ill sustains the changes of weather; and cold and moisture, in any considerable degree, would probably be fatal to it. These flies never pursue the horse into the water. This aversion, I imagine, arises from the chiliness of that element, which is probably felt more exquisitely by them, from the high temperature they had been exposed to during their *larva* state. The heat of the stomach of the horse is much greater than that of the warmest climate, being about 102 degrees of Fahrenheit, and in their fly state they are only exposed to 60, and from that to about 80 degrees. This change, if suddenly applied,

plied, would, in all probability, be fatal to them; but they are prepared for it, by suffering its first effects in the quiescent and less sensible state of a *chrysalis*. I have often seen this fly during the night-time, and in cold weather, fold itself up, with the head and tail nearly in contact, and lying apparently in a torpid state, though in the middle of summer.

‘It is worthy of remark, that the greater part of the *ova* deposited by this fly, are taken up in consequence of the irritations of other flies, as the *conopes*, *tabani*, and *muscae*, who, by settling on the skin, occasion the horse to lick himself in those parts, and thus receive the *larvæ* on the tongue and lips; and a horse that has had no *ova* deposited on him, may yet have the bots by performing the friendly office of licking another horse that has. The eggs on the shoulder are particularly well disposed for being received in this way.

‘Whether these *larvæ* can exist in the stomach of a carnivorous animal I am not certain. I gave upwards of a hundred eggs (proved by trial to be ripe, and containing a living caterpillar) to a cat in milk, at various times; and on destroying her at the end of two months after the first portion had been given, no traces of them in the stomach or intestines could be discovered.

The small end of the *chrysalis*, in all the species of this genus, contains the head of the fly, the contrary being the case with almost all other insects.’

XXVII. *Characters of a new Genus of Plants named Salisburya.* By the President.

XXVIII. *Extracts from the Minute Book of the Linnean Society.*

Z. Z.

PICTURESQUE BEAUTY.

ART. V. *Observations on the Western Parts of England, relative chiefly to picturesque Beauty. To which are added, a few Remarks on the picturesque Beauties of the Isle of Wight.* By William Gilpin, M. A. Prebendary of Salisbury; and Vicar of Boldre in New Forest, near Lymington. 8vo. 350 pages and 18 plates. Price 1l. 5s. in boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THE former works of Mr. Gilpin have afforded us abundant opportunities of remarking the correctness of his judgment, and the delicacy of his taste: the volume, which is at present before us, excites an additional interest from the motives of its publication. In the dedication to the right hon. Henry Addington, speaker of the house of commons, Mr. G. has simply said, ‘the profits of it are intended to lay the foundation of a little fund, which you, my dear sir, and a few other kind friends, have obligingly engaged to countenance at some future period;’ modestly declining to state the nature of this fund, or the purposes of its application. We must take the liberty of hinting, however, that in the year 1791, Mr. G. founded at Boldre, in the New Forest, two schools, one for the reception of twenty boys, the other for the reception of twenty girls, all of whom enjoy a moral and religious education, and receive such various instruction as may qualify them to be respectable and useful members

members of society. On the authority of sir Robert Harvey, who has given in an account of these two schools, in the fifth report of the 'Society for bettering the Condition and encreasing the Comforts of the Poor,' we may farther be allowed to state, that Mr. G. intends providing for the permanent endowment of these schools after his death, by the sale of his drawings and sketches, which, says sir Robert, 'when I was there he had formed for that purpose into eighty-nine lots, each lot containing several drawings.' There can be no doubt but that the profits of this work, which has lain by it's author these twenty years, are intended for the support of this, or some similar charitable institution.

One considerable advantage, which, among others, has arisen from the long time during which this work has slept in the port folio, is the opportunity which the author has had 'of adorning several of the scenes it describes, with contrasts taken from other countries which have occasionally fallen in his way. It was always a particular amusement to myself,' says Mr. G., 'and I hope it may be also to others, to see how *variously* Nature works up the *same modes* of scenery in different parts of the world.' For this purpose many authors are laid under contribution, whose descriptions of distant scenery receive and impart illustration from the use that is made of them. Mr. G.'s easy unaffected style of writing is familiar to most of us: in the present, as in his former works, he has enlivened his pages with many little historical anecdotes. We shall enrich our article with one or two extracts from this entertaining work.

The following few remarks on monumental ornaments are worth attending to:

P. 46.—'Indeed I know not whether monuments at all in such churches as pride themselves on their architecture, can in any shape be considered as ornamental: the nave of Westminster-Abbey, for instance, is injured, *as a piece of architecture*, by the several monuments introduced into it, which like spots of light in a picture, injure the *whole*; they break in upon its simplicity and grandeur. Thus too I doubt whether the introduction of monuments will be any advantage to St. Paul's. I should fear they might injure the grandeur of the dome, which the judicious architect had already adorned, as much as he thought consistent with the sublimity of his idea. In all cathedrals there are cloisters and other recesses, which are the proper situations for monuments: and even here every thing should not be admitted that comes under the name of a monument, and pays the fee. Plain tablets may be allowed; but when figures and ornaments are introduced, they should be such as neither disgrace the sculptor, nor the person whom he meant to honour. It would be of great advantage also to class monuments, as we hang pictures in a room, with some view to symmetry and order; and, if different professions were ranged by themselves, it would still make it more agreeable to examine them.'

Since this paragraph was written, Mr. G. has had reason to suspect the correctness of his opinion, that the judicious architect of St. Paul's, had already adorned as much as he thought consistent with the sublimity of his idea, for it is stated by sir Joshua Reynolds, vol. II, p. 242, that 'sir Christopher Wren left niches in St. Paul's

on purpose for monuments, busts, single figures, bas-reliefs, and groupes of figures.' Whatever might have been the intention of the architect, we are strongly disposed to think the observation of Mr. G. is perfectly sound: it is elucidated by the judicious remarks which our author makes on surveying the grand collection of statues, busts, and bas-reliefs, which is deposited in Wilton house:

P. 107.—'It is not easy to avoid remarking that these antiques might possibly have been arranged in a more judicious manner. The apartments of a noble house should not suffer their ornaments to obtrude foremost upon the eye. Each apartment should preserve its own dignity; to which the ornamental part should be subordinate. In every work of art, and indeed of nature also, it is a breach of the most express picturesque canon, if the parts engage the eye more than the whole. The hall, therefore, the stair-case, the saloon, and other apartments, might be adorned with a few busts and statues; but to receive the whole collection, perhaps a long gallery should have been professedly built. In this they might have been arranged in profusion.

'In constructing such a gallery, little ornament would be required. Here the statues would be the objects, not the room. To them therefore the whole should be subordinate: they would constitute the whole.

'Two things in such a gallery should chiefly be considered; the colour of the walls, and the distribution of the light. If the walls were stained with a darkish olive-tint, they would perhaps shew the statues to the best advantage; and yet a lighter tinge might probably give them more softness. The experiment might easily be tried.

'With regard to the light, it should be high, but not vertical. If the antiques were ranged on one side of the room, the light might be introduced from high windows on the other. Such a light would not certainly be the most picturesque, as each figure, at least when studied, would require a side light, appropriated to itself. But this in a degree might be obtained by the means of curtains.

'Much of the beauty of such a room would depend on the mode of arranging the antiques. The bas-reliefs might be put in plain square frames, and affixed to the wall; the busts might stand on brackets between them, or in recesses; and the statues might occupy the front. Or perhaps, on examining the whole collection together, some more happy arrangement might be formed.

'As nobody in England but the earl of Pembroke could fit up such a gallery, it should not perhaps be made entirely a private concern. It would be generous and noble to lay it open to artists, when well recommended; and to let them study in it, under proper restrictions. It would bring Italy, as much as could be, into England.'

After a slight historical sketch of Glastonbury abbey, the following anecdote recurs, to which is added, the affecting story of the last abbot's death:

P. 141.—'I should ill deserve the favours I met with from the learned antiquarian, who has the care of these ruins, though he occupies only the humble craft of a shoemaker, if I did not attempt to do some justice to his zeal and piety. No picturesque eye could more

more admire these venerable remains for their beauty, than he did for their sanctity. Every stone was the object of his devotion. But above all the appendages of Glastonbury, he revered most the famous thorn which sprang from St. Joseph's staff, and blossoms at Christmas. On this occasion he gave us the following relation.

It was at that time, he said, when the king resolved to alter the common course of the year, that he first felt distress for the honour of the house of Glastonbury. If the time of Christmas were changed, who could tell how the credit of this miraculous plant might be affected? In short, with the fortitude of a Jewish seer, he ventured to expostulate with the king upon the subject; and informed his majesty, in a letter, of the disgrace that might possibly ensue, if he persisted in his design of altering the natural course of the year. But though his conscience urged him upon this bold action, he could not but own the flesh trembled. He had not the least doubt, he said, but the king would immediately send down an order to have him hanged. He pointed to the spot where the last abbot of Glastonbury was executed for not surrendering his abbey; and he gave us to understand, there were men now alive who could suffer death, in a good cause, with equal fortitude. His zeal, however, was not put to this severe trial. The king was more merciful than he expected; for though his majesty did not follow his advice, it never appeared that he took the least offence at the freedom of his letter.

The death of the last abbot of Glastonbury is indeed a mournful tale, as it is represented by the writers of those times, and was calculated to make a lasting impression on the country.

This abbot is said to have been a pious and good man; careful of his charge, kind to the poor, and exemplary in his conduct. He is particularly mentioned as a man of great temperance; which, in a cloister, was not, perhaps, at that day, the reigning virtue. What was still as uncommon, he was a lover of learning; and not only took great care of the education of those young men, who were brought up in his house, but was at the expence of maintaining several of them at the universities. He was now very old, and very infirm; and having passed all his life in his monastery, knew little more of the world than he had seen within its walls.

It was the misfortune of this good abbot to live in the tyrannical days of Henry VIII., and at that period when the suppression of monasteries was his favourite object. Henry had applied to many of the abbots, and by threats and promises had engaged several of them to surrender their trusts. But the abbot of Glastonbury, attached to his house, and connected with his fraternity, refused to surrender. He was conscious of his own innocence; and thought guilt only had to fear from the inquisition that was abroad. But Henry, whose haughty and imperious spirit, unused to control, soared above the trifling distinctions between innocence and guilt, was highly incensed; and determined to make an example of the abbot of Glastonbury to terrify others. An order first came down for him to appear forthwith before the council. The difficulties of taking so long a journey, appeared great to an old man, who had seldom travelled beyond the limits of his monastery. But as there

was no redress, he got into an easy horse-litter, and set out. In his mode of travelling, we see the state and dignity, which certainly required some correction, of the great ecclesiastics of that age. His retinue, it is said, consisted of not fewer than an hundred and fifty horsemen.

• The king's sending for him, however, was a mere pretext. The real purpose was to prevent his secreting his effects; as it was never intended that he should return. Proper persons, therefore, were commissioned to search his apartments in his absence, and secure the wealth of the monastery. His steward, in the meantime, who was a gentleman of the degree of a knight, was corrupted to make what discoveries he could. It was an easy matter in those days to procure evidence, where it was already determined to convict. In one of the abbot's cabinets some strictures upon the divorce were either found, or pretended to be found. Nothing else could be obtained against him.

• During this interval, the abbot, who knew nothing of these proceedings, waited on the council. He was treated respectfully; and informed, that the king would not *force* any man to do what he wished him to *do freely*. However, as his majesty intended to receive his final determination on the spot, he was at liberty to return.

• Being thus dismissed, the abbot thought all was now over, and that he might be permitted to end his days peaceably in his beloved monastery.

• He was now nearly at the end of his journey, having arrived at Wells, which is within five miles of Glastonbury, when he was informed, that a county-court (of what kind is not specified) was convened there on that day, to which he, as abbot of Glastonbury, was summoned. He went into the court room accordingly; and as his station required, was going to take his place at the upper end of it, among the principal gentry of the country; when the crier called him to the bar, where he was accused of high treason.

• The old man, who had not the least conception of the affair, was utterly astonished; and turning to his steward, who stood near him, asked, if he knew what could be the meaning of all this? That traitor, whispering in his ear, wished him not to be cast down, for he knew the meaning of it was only to terrify him into a compliance. Though the court, therefore, on the evidence of the paper taken out of his cabinet, found him guilty of high treason, he had still no idea of what was intended. From the court he was conveyed to his litter, and conducted to Glastonbury; still in suspense how all this would end.

• When he arrived under the walls of his abbey, the litter was ordered to stop; and an officer riding up to him, bade him prepare for instant death. A priest, at the same time, presented himself to take his confession.

• The poor old abbot, utterly confounded at the suddenness of the thing, was quite unmanned. He begged with tears, and for God's sake, they would allow him some little time for recollection. But his tears were vain. Might he not then just enter his monastery; take leave of his friends; and recommend himself to their prayers?
All

All was to no purpose. He was dragged out of his litter, and laid upon a hurdle, to which a horse being yoked, he was drawn along the ground to the Torr, and there, to make the triumph complete, was hung up, in his monk's habit, and in sight of his monastery. It was a triumph, however, that was attended with the tears and lamentations of the whole country, which had long considered this pious man as a friend, benefactor, and father.

How far this shocking story, in all its circumstances of strange precipitancy, and wanton cruelty, may be depended on, considering the hands through which it is conveyed, may be matter of doubt: thus much, however, is certain, that if the picture here given of the royal savage of those days be not an exact portrait, it bears evidently a striking resemblance.

The limits of our Review prohibit us from adding much more to the entertainment of this article, by additional extracts; we conclude with the following judicious observations on ornamental cottages:

P. 308.—'But though the *situation* of *Undercliff* or *Steephill* is pleasing, we could not say much for what is called the *cottage*. It is covered indeed with thatch; but that makes it no more a cottage, than ruffles would make a clown a gentleman, or a meally hat would turn a laced beau into a miller. We every where see the appendages of junket and good living. Who would expect to find a fountain bubbling up under the windows of a *cottage*, into an elegant carved shell to cool wine? The thing is beautiful but out of place. The imagination does not like to be jolted in its sensations from one idea to another; but to go on quietly in the same track, either of *grandeur* or *simplicity*. Easy contrasts it approves; but violent interruptions it dislikes.

Pleasing ideas, no doubt, may be executed under the form of a cottage; but to make them *pleasing*, they should be *harmonious*. We sometimes see the *cottage idea* carried so far as to paste ballads on the walls with good effect. But we need not restrict what may be called the *artificial cottage* to so very close an imitation of the *natural one*. In the *inside* certainly it may admit much greater neatness and convenience; though even here every ornament that approaches *splendor*, should be rejected. Without too, though the roof be thatched, we may allow it to cover two stories; and if it project somewhat over the walls, the effect may be better. We should not object to faded windows; but they must not be large; and if you wish for a vestibule, a common brick porch, with a plain neat roof, is all we allow. We often see the front of a cottage covered with what is called *rough cast*; which has a good effect; and this may be tinted with a yellowish tinge mixed with lime, which is more pleasing than the cold raw tint of lime and ashes. But if in the front there is any stonework, under the denomination of *frize*, *archetrave*, or ornament of any kind, it is too much.

The ground about a cottage should be neat, but artless. There is no occasion to plant cabbages in the front. The garden may be removed out of sight; but the lawn that comes up to the door, should be grazed, rather than mown. The sunk-fence, the net, and the painted rail, are ideas alien to the cottage. The broad gravel-walk too we totally reject; and in its room wish only for a simple unaffected one.

These

' These things being considered, it may, perhaps, be a more difficult thing to rear a cottage, with all its proper uniformities, than is commonly imagined; inasmuch as it may be easier to introduce the elegancies of art, than to catch the pure simplicity of nature.' A. N.

MEDICINE. SURGERY.

ART. VI. *Remarks on Hydrophobia, or the Disease produced by the Bite of a mad Dog, or other rabid Animal, &c.* By R. Hamilton, M. D. In two vols. 8vo. Second edit. with additions and corrections. 14s. boards. 885 p. Longman. 1798.

NOTWITHSTANDING the valuable acquisitions which the materia medica has received from the recent improvements in chemistry, and discoveries in botany, we still find several diseases which continue to baffle the skill of the ablest practitioners. Among these, the subject of the work before us holds a distinguished place. Whether we consider the great variety of animals liable to be affected by it, the increasing frequency of its occurrence, the severity and fatal tendency of its symptoms, or our hitherto fruitless attempts to alleviate them, we must rank hydrophobia among the diseases, which call most loudly for the attention of the faculty. The first step towards the improvement of any art or science, is to become acquainted with its present state; and this information, we think, may be obtained very completely from the work before us. Dr. H., indeed, appears to have spared no pains in collecting both facts and opinions, ancient as well as modern; and if the arrangement and style had been equal to the author's diligence in collecting materials, we should have perused his pages with much greater satisfaction. The circumstances under which he wrote, having lost his sight, may be considered as the cause, and an apology for the repetitions, digressions, and inaccuracies of style, which frequently occur, though never in such a degree as to pervert, or obscure the sense.

The first volume commences with some observations on the increasing frequency of the disease, and the propriety of the legislature interfering to diminish the number of dogs kept in each district of the kingdom.

Dr. H. concludes, that the dog and cat kind alone are capable of communicating hydrophobia, but that it may arise in these 'from internal causes, and without communication.' This subject, however, is reserved for a future part of the work: Vol. II, p. 158.

At p. 13, Vol. I, we have an enumeration of *the symptoms in the dog*.

The first stage has nothing pathognomonic: the dog becomes melancholy, his eyes appear dull, his appetite diminished, and he is irregularly peevish. Dr. H. then observes, 'As the first stage of the disease is indistinct, and marks nothing peculiar, we may be in danger from want of suspicion of the nature of the malady; but let the indisposition of a dog be ever so slight, prudence ought to direct us to treat it as of importance. The second is more

more distinctly marked; for, in a day or two, he feeds with less avidity, though he does not refuse, as has been said, his victuals or drink. He now shuns other dogs, and is equally shunned by them. Then comes the last stage; he loses altogether his recollection, quits his master's house, runs forward he knows not where, and without any particular design, rushes in his fury, and without barking, at every animal that comes in his way, but turns not aside to bite any; and, in the space of two days after, or less, dies convulsed. If he is tied up, he bites at his chain, &c. in this stage of the malady, and is furious when approached.

'The symptom of a drooping tail is more remarkable in this than in the former stage; another is likewise evident, viz. a convexity of the back, formed by drawing his hinder towards his fore legs. This is likewise accompanied by an extreme dryness of the nose.

'In all the different animals under hydrophobia, (the dog included) the disease attacks by exacerbation and interval, or remission.

'Since we find it invariable, that the dog strays from home when the disorder is approaching its acmé, it suggests a caution of the utmost importance; this is, never to be familiar with strange dogs.'

After the enumeration of the symptoms in the dog, with some cases, Dr. H. observes, that this animal seems more susceptible of rabies than any other species, as few instances can be produced where the disease has not followed the bite, when the means of prevention were omitted. In the human species, on the contrary, not more than *one* in *sixteen* of those bitten ever take the infection; this, however, should not abate our diligence in employing the most effectual means of prevention in every instance, without trusting to the dog's apparent health, even a few minutes after he has inflicted the wound.

The means of prevention, the author next proposes to discuss; but, first, he deems it necessary, p. 32, to state the two different opinions at present entertained respecting the manner in which the saliva of the dog produces the disease, as well as the arguments by which each opinion is supported.

'The one opinion is, that the infection acts locally, and by irritation, not only on nerves, but tendons, and thereby sympathetically affecting the whole nervous system, and moving fibres, without the introduction of the poison into the circulating system, or communication with the mass of fluids.

'The other, that the absorbing vessels, as by an universal law of their nature, after a due time, drink up the poisonous saliva inserted in the wound, and carry it to the general mass, to be mixed with the blood, &c., and thereby, in a secondary manner, acting on the nerves, and propagating the disorder.' Vid. corrections at the end of vol. 1, p. 4.

'The latter has been the opinion generally received as the most obvious and natural; and, till within a few years, considered as the indisputable channel through which the venom was presumed to be put into action.' This is the opinion adopted by

by Dr. H. ; the former by Morgagni, Sauvages, and Mr. Roux, of Dijon, who has published some cases of hydrophobia in the Memoirs of the Royal Medical Society of Paris for 1783, an abridgment of which is given in the appendix to this work, vol. II, p. 506.

Mr. Roux believes the saliva, when first introduced into the wound, to be scarcely venomous, but that it becomes so by stagnation in the part, and that it frequently requires a long time to become a poison. He thinks, if it were carried by the absorbents into the circulation, it would be too far diluted to produce the disease.

Dr. Percival, in his essays, refers the disease 'to local irritation, first communicated to the brain, and thence reflected back to the fauces, &c. analogous to the aura epileptica.'

Dr. Rush is next mentioned as maintaining the doctrine of *primary* nervous irritation in hydrophobia, and supporting it's analogy to tetanus; which is often produced by lacerations of nerves and tendons. He is followed by his pupil Dr. Mease.

Dr. Darwin appears to favour the same opinion. Vid. Zoonom. vol. II, p. 347.

But Dr. Maclean, in his letter to the author, inserted in vol. II, p. 292, has taken up the subject at more considerable length, and adduced many ingenious arguments and analogies in support of primary irritation.

The author, p. 42, proceeds to support his own opinion of *absorption* in opposition to *local irritation*.

He begins with a short sketch of the absorbent system and it's uses; then makes a few remarks on the different periods, which are observed to intervene between the inoculation of various poisons, and the appearance of the specific diseases arising from them.

He thinks, the state of the system, in respect of it's susceptibility, the virulence of the poison applied, or the quantity of it, may not only shorten, or protract the interval, but prevent the appearance of disease altogether.

'Different poisons require different periods of time before they exert their force; but these periods, allowing for idiosyncrasy, or habit of body, when received, are pretty regular with respect to the same poison. p. 53. Thus, the small pox appears from the eighth to the tenth day after inoculation; the rabid poison requires a period from five to six weeks from the accident to the first intimation of the approaching disease.' This we wish, with the author, to inculcate; and believe, that when the symptoms arise much sooner or later, they ought to be imputed to the operations of a different cause.

p. 65, Dr. H. returns from a number of digressive observations on the absorbent system, to the support of his opinion respecting the hydrophobia being produced by absorption.

'If absorption takes place in the variolous and venereal diseases, which is proved; if it takes place, likewise, from the poison of the rattlesnake, viper, and other venomous reptiles, which, from the experiments of Fontana, seems proved; and if it be allowed, that the same takes place in some of the narcotic vegetable poisons, as is proved by professor Monro, in the instance of opium,

opium, we shall find sufficient analogical reasoning to conclude, that a similar process goes on in the case of rabid poison.'

The objections to this reasoning are founded on a previous supuration in the inoculated part, in the cases of variola and lues, which never takes place in rabies: in those, too, we trace the virus in the course of the lymphatics, by pain and swelling of the glands, which is not observed in rabies. All this the author denies.

It is objected, that the analogy from the bites of serpents, and stings of insects, fails entirely, as they all produce local irritation; the effects of which, in some cases, are soon propagated to the whole body. It has also been proved, by experiment, (vol. II, p. 305) that these poisons produce the same effects on frogs, after the heart has been taken out, and the circulation abolished.

P. 69. Dr. H. considers the regularity of the interval, from the bite to the disease, as confirming the analogy between rabies and those diseases which are allowed by all to arise from absorption. Diseases arising from local irritation supervene in a few hours, or else at very *irregular* periods.

The matter inoculated, by dissecting a putrid body, is soon absorbed; that from cancer, often after many months; but no doubt is entertained of absorption in either case.

It appears to be an universal law of animal bodies, either to absorb, or throw off, by suppuration, all extraneous matters; and 'would it not be unphilosophical to reason differently of the canine virus?'

After answering a number of less important objections, Dr. H. proceeds, p. 87, to invalidate the analogy between rabies and tetanus. This he does from the difference in the cause and symptoms; and hence concludes, that such imperfect analogy can be no proof, that hydrophobia arises from local irritation only, independent of absorption.

The next argument adduced by Dr. H., p. 96, in support of his opinion, is drawn from the pain felt in the course of absorption, a few days previous to the commencement of the malady. The length of the period between the time of the bite, and appearance of the disease, presses equally against both opinions.

Dr. Maclean, vol. II, p. 501, in meeting this objection, says, the pain is felt not only in the course of absorption, but in that of the muscular fibres also; and takes it for granted, that if absorption takes place at all, it must be 'some weeks, or months, before the appearance of the disease,' and, therefore, that no *local* affection ought to take place at all. But the author constantly inculcates, that the absorption commences only a few days before the appearance of the symptoms.

Our author then proceeds, p. 100, to his argumentum crucis. He recites ten cases where the disease was produced without any wound, and, consequently, without any local irritation in the nerves of the part.

Several of these cases are irrelevant; and the absorption of fluids through the cuticle, without wounds or friction, is at present deemed problematical.

Whichever of these two opinions be adopted, Dr. H. observes, the means of prevention or cure will be precisely the same; and to the detail of these he next proceeds, after another digression on the interval between the bite and disease, p. 107, &c.

The prevention, after the bite or application of the virus, p. 127.—While the means of cure are so little understood, this is, doubtless, the most important consideration that can arise in a treatise on hydrophobia. Dr. H. examines, 1. Suction, which he thinks inefficacious, and dangerous to the operator. 2. Extirpation of the wounded part.—This is now generally esteemed not only the best, but the only certain means of preventing this dreadful malady. Dr. H. having concluded, that absorption does not take place before the part inflames, and becomes painful, infers, that extirpation, even so late as the first appearance of these symptoms, will prevent the disease. The favourers of local irritation agree with him in this opinion. If this fact could be established by a few decisive cases, it would tend greatly to diminish our horror of this terrible calamity.

Dr. H. adduces several cases where extirpation had been performed long after the bite, twenty-eight days in one case, and no disease ensued. But when we observe how few of those bitten, in the human species, take the infection, these cases can only be considered as presumptive proofs.

The propriety of extirpation being admitted, the next consideration is the best manner of performing it.

p. 141. 'In removing the bitten part, much care and judgment are requisite. It cannot be doubted but a few failures, of which we read, arose from want of attention to the minuter circumstances in the operation. On removing the piece which contains the wound, the under surface of it should be carefully examined, to find whether the tooth penetrated through it. If this be discovered, a deeper piece still should be taken out, so that no mark whatever of the tooth be perceived on the under side. For should the least speck be left, which had been touched by the poisoned tooth, there will be no certainty of safety. I speak of recent injuries; but if days have elapsed, the ensuing inflammation in the progress towards cicatrization, will alter the appearance, and render other cautions necessary. I shall, without hesitation, then, recommend, and would enforce it, were I able, a piece to be cut out round the part wounded, making the incision, at the same time, pretty deep, to prevent accidents, from leaving any of the animal's saliva behind. I can see little cruelty in this, when we compare short temporary pain to the dire scene that we have reason to expect.'

The author then advises the wound to be healed as soon as possible. 'For,' he observes, 'if, as we hope from the previous accuracy in the operation, no poison remains, where is the utility of keeping a sore open? Even supposing the poison had not been all removed by the knife, it seems doubtful whether this method could eliminate from the sore the remaining venom.'

We cannot think this opinion consistent with that given at p. 148 and p. 137, respecting Dr. Guthrie's patient, or with experience.

Dr.

Dr. H., in other parts of his work, vid. p. 149 and 157, appears doubtful whether the knife or caustic ought to be preferred, in extirpating the wounded part; and some of his friends, particularly Dr. Maclean, give a decided preference to the caustic. The butter of antimony, or aqua kali puri, seem the best.

We agree with the author, that circumstances must decide the preference of the practitioner. 'Sometimes it happens, that the part bitten is unfavourable for extirpation. This is the case when large wounds are recieved either in the lips, or about the face or neck. In such cases the physician [surgeon] has a most difficult part to act. If he pays too great attention to appearances, he may fall into the opposite extreme, and lose his patient from lenity, and regard to his looks.'

After the elaborate instructions given for preventing hydrophobia, by extirpating the wounded part, from p. 141 to 157, we were not a little surprized to observe, that neither the author, nor his friends, had suggested any cautions respecting the knife employed in performing the excision. There can be little doubt, that a scalpel, wet with it, may inoculate the virus as effectually as the tooth of a dog. Whenever, therefore, it is discovered, during the operation, that the knife has come into contact with any of the wounded parts, it should immediately be laid aside, and another used to finish the excision; or the parts touched by the infected knife should be removed by caustic, after the operation.

The third means of prevention, which Dr. H. examines, are *specifics*. These he condemns altogether, 'as experience has proved them fallible and trifling: not excepting the *Ormskirk* and *Tonguin* medicines.'

Vinegar employed internally, dipping in salt water, or any other cold bath, (though so long and so generally used) and mercury, have all been often found ineffectual, as preventatives.

Dr. H. having gone over the means of prevention, and shown the insufficiency of all, without the extirpation of the part, he proceeds, in his next chapter, vol. 1, p. 202, to detail the symptoms of hydrophobia, as they appear in the human subject.

Many of these are common to the generality of cases; some are observed but seldom: the latter are authenticated by references to the cases in which they were observed.

'It first threatens, by the usual warnings, of a sense of coldness, alternating with heat, pandiculation and yawning; and with, sometimes, a higher degree of exhilaration of spirits. These being only the first harbingers, they continue sometimes for three, four, and even to six or seven days before the patient takes the alarm: a severer train of symptoms, but more characteristic, afterwards succeeds.

' SYMPTOMS.

'The first is generally a pain in the part where the bite has been received, stretching upwards towards the hip and groin, if in the lower; towards the shoulder and axilla, if in the upper extremities; and sometimes with discolouration: sometimes to the temples, ear, and down to the throat, if about the face or neck.

' 2. Then

* 2. Then succeed lassitude, inactivity, and torpidness; disturbed sleep, watchfulness, *muscæ volitantes*, illusions, and terrifying dreams.

* 3. Convulsions, especially when offered drink, starting of the tendons, and perpetual restlessness.

* 4. Cannot bear a recumbent, especially a supine posture.

* 5. Dejectedness and melancholy, with deep sighing, fear, timidity, apprehension, and a desire of solitude.

* 6. External organs of sensation morbidly acute, the smallest motion of the air, especially cold air, producing great uneasiness. The light offensive to the sight, and unable to look at a transparent body.

* 7. Eyes quick and penetrating; great dilatation of the pupil, blindness, sometimes temporary, sometimes continual, and this either of one or both eyes; smell also diseased; tongue dry, and great thirst.

* 8. Pulse unsteady; weak, sometimes hard, changing frequently; aspect likewise various.

* 9. Unusual titillation of the urethra; urine in small quantity, sometimes forcibly expelled by spasms; after making water, *seminis emissio*.

* 10. Muscles of the *gula* now convulsed, as soon as water or other liquids touch them, internally or externally; great sense of suffocation, but seldom pain.

* 11. Stricture about the *cartilago ensiformis*; sense of a boiling heat in the stomach; strong palpitations of the heart; and, in some instances, the sensation of flame scorching the external body, especially about the back and belly.

* 12. Copious flow of saliva, viscid and ropy; often excessive reachings to vomit; not in every case full vomiting.

* 13. As the disease advances, the spasms of the cremaster muscle cease; eyes now lose their penetrating appearance, becoming more fixed and heavy.

* 14. The disease still advancing, pain from swallowing increases; and liquids in many, though not in every instance, totally refused; pulse intermits; hands and feet become cold; the paroxysms of the convulsions return now at shorter, but uncertain intervals, become more violent. *Risus sardonius*.

* 15. Now constant muttering, and talking; yet when questions are asked, rational answers given: pulse now more frequent, at length constant delirium, horror, and the extremest anxiety.

* 16. Frantic; and attempts, sometimes in the fit, to bite; but this not frequent: spasmodic affections still increasing, sometimes become so strong as to throw the patient out of bed, if not forcibly held in it.

* 17. Death.

We have given the author's enumeration of symptoms, without abridgment, not only as a specimen of his work, but because, in a disease where so little is known respecting the cure, we esteem the means of prevention, and the detail of symptoms, as the most interesting circumstances concerning it.

We

We are sorry to observe, that the author has made no attempt in this, which seems the proper place, to discriminate the curable from the incurable stages of the malady. In other parts of his work, p. 219, &c. he considers the accession of the symptom of hydrophobia as the line of separation; but here he affirms, as far as the 14th class of symptoms, that 'liquids are totally refused in many, though not in every instance;' whereas a dread of drinking so great, as to produce convulsions, is enumerated in the third class. When the disease is formed, patients in general are observed to die in three or four days; and, on this account, it may be entitled to the appellation of an acute disease, though fever is very seldom observed to attend it.

We think the fifth class of symptoms should have preceded the second.

Dr. H., p. 227, subjoins to his account of the symptoms, a number of dissections, collected from various authors; but these throw very little light on the seat or nature of the complaint. He concludes this volume with some observations on the spontaneous hydrophobia; and is of opinion, that it cannot be extinguished from the inoculated.

He thinks experiments made on the saliva might lead to a distinction: and subjoins an account of some made on the saliva of horses, by Mr. Hapel, of Paris. The distinction, however, does not appear to him of much importance, as neither of the diseases can be communicated by man; and the same mode of treatment should be applied in both.

The author has candidly subjoined to the first volume a number of corrections and objections suggested by several of his medical friends, with his own replies, and, consequently, anticipated some of our criticisms.

The second volume commences with the treatment of this formidable disease, in which the author considers the efficacy of the remedies hitherto employed, and suggests some hints respecting the trial of new ones.

He divides the progress of the disorder into two stages, the first continues till the dread of liquids becomes apparent, the second from that time till death. It is this second period which constitutes the actual presence of the disease, and to which the *cure* can, with any propriety, be directed. Whatever is done during the first stage falls under the head of *prevention*, already discussed.

As remedies he examines the effects of 1st. *Emetics*, which he justly condemns. 2d. *Cathartics*, he admits, of the most lenient kind, may be beneficial, but he appears to prefer, 3d. *Injections*, both for the purpose of evacuating the intestinal canal as well as conveying *palliatives* into the system. 4th. *Bathing*. If we suppose the disease, or even the thirst, to depend on spasm, Dr. Currie's reasoning on the use of the cold-bath in fever appears applicable to hydrophobia. It has been recommended from the time of Celsus to this day, and appears to constitute a part of the tonic plan. See No. 13. Dr. H., however, disapproves of it, as well as the warm bath.

5th. *Stimulants*, such as alkalis and acids, he thinks of doubtful efficacy; and 6th. *Venesection* he condemns, we think, properly, though generally recommended by practitioners.

7th. Epispastics, &c. to the throat and top of the spine, and pit of the stomach, are recommended; but he prefers the form of warm plasters to blisters, as less debilitating and more easily confined to the parts intended.

8. Mercury, in a complaint of so much *irritation and debility*, cannot be useful.

9th. Exercise appears to promise some advantage; but extirpating the cicatrix when the pain first begins to be felt in it, is strongly recommended.

10th. Oil is not found to be efficacious: nor 11th. Vinegar. Other acids have not been tried.

12. Antispasmodics have hitherto failed; but perhaps hydro-carbonate may succeed in diminishing the irritation. This he afterwards doubts.

13. Tonics, both from the vegetable and mineral kingdom, are recommended, particularly bark and arsenic. Under the consideration of tonics Dr. H., after stating the component parts of the blood, and the rapid tendency to putrefaction, observed in the bodies of those who die hydropobic, as well as the sensation of cold and restlessness, complained of by the patients, concludes that their blood is not sufficiently oxygenated.

* If all the phenomena of the disease be reviewed, and we can rely on the appearances of putrefaction after death, which have been affirmed, the vital air modified to our purpose, would seem better adapted to a cure than the other species of elastic fluids.

* Great exertions create proportionate debility by the expenditure of this principle. No disease, no condition of the body has been seen, where greater exertion or greater distress of the mind takes place. The exhaustion must be in proportion. The poisoned saliva may possess the power in itself, like opium, of exhausting the frame, and creating a morbid deficiency of the vital principle, beyond what is known in other diseases.

* If it be oxygen that gives power to muscular motion; if its absence be weakness, we cannot doubt but a condition of the body is present in this disease, containing a far less portion of this principle than is requisite for the standard of health.

* If this speculation be permitted, the mode of relief lies before us, and air, supercharged with oxygen, affords it.

* I have ventured thus to hazard a conjecture on the probable good effects of oxygen in the cure of this disorder; I have ventured *it* from a consideration of the futility of every means of relief hitherto adopted; I have ventured it, perhaps, more on the principles of empiricism than on just induction from the nature of the complaint; but who is the investigator hitherto able satisfactorily to arrive at it? I would not, however, be understood as advising the inhalation of factitious gas to supersede the use of these substances denominated *tonics*, remedies extolled by the latest, and most philosophic writers on this disease. Having brought these observations, relative to the cure, before the reader, I leave them to his consideration. They are indeed imperfect, and, perhaps, he may, with justice, complain of my leaving the subject nearly in as much uncertainty, in this respect, as before my investigation. He will allow, however, the task of complete elucidation to be arduous, and I am willing to acknowledge much of the uncertainty which he may attribute to me.

We have given these observations on the cure, both as a specimen of the author's disposition to theorize, as well as of his manner of reasoning on the application of remedies.

P. 130.—The author examines the question respecting the earlier or later appearance of the disease after the bite, as depending upon the situation of the part wounded; and from the cases he has been able to collect, infers that the interval does *not* depend upon the situation; as Sauvages and Van Swieten assert.

His next chap., p. 138, is employed in refuting some vulgar errors respecting hydrophobia, but as his work is not designed for vulgar readers, it might have been omitted. The errors are, 1. That hydrophobia is a species of insanity even in man, and communicable by him. 2. That other animals beside the dog and cat kind may communicate it. 3. That hydrophobics commonly are, and ought to be, put to death; that they bark like dogs; all which notions have long been exploded by medical men.

At p. 158, Dr. H. enters on the cause producing the disease *originally* in the canine tribe: this subject necessarily leads to hypothesis and conjecture, which Dr. H. appears disposed to indulge in. He supposes that under certain states of the atmosphere, and of the food taken in, animals may generate the *semina morborum* in their own bodies, particularly in the alimentary canal. He agrees with Dr. Currie in assenting to the opinion of Dr. Mitchell, viz. that the gaseous oxyd of nitrogen may generate contagious diseases. These opinions he supports at considerable length, by quotations and analogical reasoning, but as the question might have been brought to the test of experiment by feeding a number of dogs, in kennels, on putrid flesh, and exposing them to the deleterious gas above mentioned, we are sorry that it was not tried.

Then follows a long digression on the effects of cold weather, &c. to p. 224.

The next chapter contains a repetition of the distinguishing signs in the dog, with additional remarks and cautions respecting strong dogs, to p. 244.

Dr. H. then bestows twenty pages on the means of preserving the general health of dogs, and preventing infection from spreading when it appears. These are almost all referable to the articles of diet and cleanliness.

The last chapter is devoted to the subject of worming dogs, as a prevention of hydrophobia; and it is shown, by many examples, to be inefficacious.

The remaining part of the volume, about three hundred pages, consists of an appendix, annotations, and corrections. The appendix contains a number of cases, and some letters, written to the author on the subject of his publication, which are not only often referred to in the preceding parts of the work, but the whole of the information contained in them very fully, and often repeatedly communicated. The author is sensible of this, and has anticipated several criticisms in his preface and appendix to the second volume, to which we refer our readers.

Dr. H. professes to have written for various classes of readers, and we believe that each will be gratified in a considerable degree. The medical practitioner, desirous of improving his science, will here find an ample collection of materials to work upon; but he will not find them arranged to his hand.

The young student will find much useful information, as well as a great variety of speculative opinions, with which he will probably be considerably improved and amused.

The country gentleman and sportsman will find sufficient instructions for preserving the health of their dogs, as well as checking the progress of disease when it appears in those animals. Upon the whole, we think the work valuable in the matter it contains, but defective in style and arrangement.

S. Q.

ART. VII. *Essays on the Venereal Disease and its concomitant Affections, illustrated by a Variety of Cases. Essay I.—Part I. On the antivenereal Effects of Nitrous Acid, oxygenated Muriate of Potash, and several analogous Remedies, which have been lately proposed as Substitutes for Mercury.* By William Blair, A. M. Surgeon of the Lock Hospital and Asylum, and of the Old Finsbury Dispensary. 8vo. 252 pages. Price 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1798.

NOTHING can show more forcibly the necessity of a cautious admission of conclusions respecting the powers and effects of new remedies, than the numerous reports which have, at different times, been made of the efficacy of particular medicines in the cure of venereal complaints. At one period guaiacum, at another sarsaparilla, and at a third opium, have been extolled as sovereign remedies in these cases. And now the medical practitioner is assured, that he may safely rely on the use of the nitric acid, and those substances which contain a large portion of oxygen. A nice attention to the result of practical trials, and a careful examination of facts, will, however, most probably demonstrate, that not even any one of the many substances that have been recommended, can be so fully trusted to, as mercury, though several of them may, in certain instances, and under certain circumstances, overcome the disease.

These remarks naturally present themselves to the reader in perusing these essays, as they contain evidence in direct opposition to what has been suggested by other writers, and plainly show, that success is far from being so general as it has been represented, in the new mode of treating the venereal disease.

Mr. B.'s publication is not, however, rich in either observation, or practical direction, but it comprises minute details of a great number of cases, in which the nitric acid and the oxygenated muriate of potash were fairly and fully tried, without producing those advantageous effects which have been lately ascribed to them. Some patients were, indeed, relieved, and, perhaps, a few cured, by the author's attempts, but his success was far from being general. There are several cases in which we cannot perceive, that any effect whatever was produced.

Mr. B. claims the attention of medical readers on these grounds.

Pref. p. i.—'My situation,' says he, 'as surgeon of an establishment exclusively appropriated to the cure of the lues venerea, affords me daily opportunities of treating a greater variety of cases than falls to the lot of practitioners in general: I therefore thought it my duty to institute a fair and extensive trial of the new antivenereal remedies in every stage of this disease, and to lay the result of my observations before the public.'

'I had been for some time preparing to illustrate the origin, progress, and natural history of syphilis, and indeed had made considerable advances

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vances in my enquiry, when Mr. W. Scott's report on the nitric acid was introduced to the medical world: The general attention it excited, and its great importance as a practical question, induced me to bring forward the subject prior to that which I had planned.

Although the evidence contained in this part of my FIRST ESSAY will, I trust, be acceptable and useful, it is not fully adequate to my wishes. Another collection of facts, recently communicated to me by several gentlemen of the highest respectability, is now in the press; and will be published very soon: These, together with such remarks and inferences as have been suggested to my mind in the course of this investigation, will probably include all I shall have occasion to say on the medicines lately recommended.'

Why the author has chosen to dignify his work with the title of *Essays* we cannot discover, there is certainly nothing of the nature or form of an essay in this part. It contains merely an enumeration of what has been advanced by the supporters of the new mode of practice, and a dry practical narrative of what the author has himself done.

After informing those who have not had leisure to turn over the musty volumes of the older writers on venereal complaints, that the treatment by means of acids is not, as commonly supposed, a new discovery, he proceeds to give them what he conceives to be a necessary piece of advice for consulting the works of modern authors. It is this:

P. 19.—' Though the nonsense of Paracelsus and Van Helmont is superseded by the phraseology of modern illumination, it may be questioned, perhaps, whether either of them have facilitated the cure of diseases. I am very far from insinuating that experimental chymistry has been useless in the practice of medicine; but I would guard young practitioners against that licentious spirit of innovation which has bewitched some of our speculative enquirers after knowledge. "*Nihil magis à vera morborum cognitione mentem retrahit, quàm effrænis illa speculandi disputandique licentia, cui in ipsa praxi adeò indulgere medici Arabes, et quotquot post eos fuere Galenici.*" This judicious remark of Baglivi deserves attention, in the present inquisitive age.'

Facts should certainly be nicely examined on both sides this question; we, therefore, highly approve of Mr. B.'s plan, as it not only shows what has been done, but puts the practitioner properly on his guard, and teaches him not to be too sanguine in his expectations from these new modes of cure.

ART. VIII. *A System of Dissections, explaining the Anatomy of the human Body, the Manner of displaying the Parts, and their Varieties in Disease. Part I.* By Charles Bell. Folio. 28 pages and four plates. Price 5s. 6d. Edinburgh, Mundells; London, Johnson. 1798.

It must be obvious to every one, that a full and perfect knowledge of anatomy cannot be obtained in any other way than by the actual dissection of dead bodies. The minute details of the science can only be studied while the parts are before us. A work therefore, which offers practical directions for the tyro in this art, cannot fail of having a beneficial tendency, especially if well executed. Mr. Bell observes, with some truth,

Pref. p. iii.—‘ That the common books are not suited to be assistants in dissection, every one must allow, who has taken the knife into his own hands, or been attentive to operations in a dissecting-room. He will know, that, in dissection, it is not the want of minute description that is so much felt, as the want of arrangement, and plans upon which to proceed.—How often is it found, that young men, who have begun their anatomical labours with a true conviction of the importance of the subject, and with the most determined resolutions to combat all difficulties which might oppose themselves to their progress, have, for want of a plan and system of proceeding, gone to work in so disorderly a manner, that they have been soon bewildered, and forced, in disgust and despair, to give up a pursuit, which, with their views better directed, would have been most plain, and certainly most valuable to them. The conviction of the want of some guide to the younger students in these labours, has emboldened me to this attempt.

‘ The object of this work is to serve as an assistant to the student in acquiring a knowledge of practical anatomy; in gaining a local memory of the parts; in learning to trace them upon the dead subject, and to be able to represent them to his own mind upon the living body. This being my object, the method to be pursued is obvious: to give a short detail of the anatomy; to show how the parts are to be laid open, and how they are to be distinguished in dissection, or avoided in an operation; to explain the consequence of each part to the great functions of the body, and to mark the diseases to which it is liable.’

In an introduction of considerable length, he informs the student of different circumstances respecting the management of injection, and the methods that facilitate the dissection and demonstration of minute parts of the system. This part may be consulted with advantage by the young anatomist; and the following plan of proceeding in the study of this important branch of knowledge is in many respects judicious.

Introd. p. xiii.—‘ From what I have seen,’ says Mr. B., ‘ of private dissection, I would rather advise those who are desirous of undertaking a complete course of dissections, not to begin their labours with learning all the muscles of the body; for this, besides other disagreeable circumstances, is a dry and tedious task at first.—It will perhaps be found more truly useful to begin their dissections with general views to the economy of such parts as, from lectures or books, they know to be of importance; then proceeding, in a more determined way, to study rigidly the anatomy of the bones and muscles, and accidents of the great joints, —the blood-vessels and nerves, and the anatomy of the great operations of surgery.

‘ During dissection, there are many little operations which should be practised, and which are neglected. The introducing, for example, of probes into the ducts; as into the nasal duct, and into the ducts of the salivary glands: the introducing of instruments into the nose and throat, and into the eustachian tube: the
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use of the probang, and of the catheter, &c.—Knowledge and dexterity in such points often prove more useful, as being oftener required, than the greater operations of surgery.’

The author begins by showing the method of dissecting the abdominal muscles, in the different stages, and afterwards proceeds to description of the dissections of the viscera of the abdomen. In explaining these, useful observations are occasionally introduced, though we have not met with any thing more than is given in the ordinary courses of anatomical lectures.

The following are of this kind :

P. 5.—‘ It is wrong to cut across the belly in opening collections of matter amongst these muscles, unless they have been destroyed by the matter ; because the fibres of the muscles are then cut across ; hence they retract, and form a gap ; and at the same time the possibility is increased of wounding the epigastric artery which runs up the belly. By opening these abscesses with an incision parallel to the fibres of the muscles, the parts are divided, without allowing the muscles to retract ; and the chance of wounding the arteries is lessened. In tapping for the dropsy, it is said that the epigastric artery (the course of which I have marked in the plate with a dotted line), is sometimes wounded, or its accompanying vein. But it should be expected, when these were wounded, that while the canula remained in the wound, distending the orifice, they should not bleed. If they should bleed, however, they may probably be stopped by pressing the canula obliquely to one side. I have never seen an accident of this kind ; but such cases have been described to me, where the deluge of waters was coagulated in the tub. Perhaps an enlarged spleen, or some of the viscera touched with the trochar, may sometimes account for such a bleeding.’

Of Mr. B.’s general plan and intention we in many respects approve ; but we think the form which he has chosen equally awkward and inconvenient for the purposes he had in view.

MENTAL DERANGEMENT.

ART. IX. *An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of mental Derangement. Comprehending a concise System of the Physiology and Pathology of the human Mind. And a History of the Passions and their Effects.* By Alexander Crichton, M.D. Physician to the Westminster Hospital, and public Lecturer on the Theory and Practice of Physic, and on Chemistry. 2 vols. 8vo. 863 pages. Pr. 12s. boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THE facts connected with the morbid conditions of the human mind are numerous and interesting ; but no author, so far as we recollect, has attempted to arrange and class them under certain determinate principles, according to their nature and import. This is the particular business and object of the ingenious and valuable work now before us. The author, with much labour and research, has collected the scattered materials contained in the writings of various medical inquirers, philosophers, and metaphysicians, of our own and other countries, and presented them

to the reader in a more clear, methodical, and engaging form: in such a form, indeed, as must equally attract the notice of the physician and philosopher. The plan which doctor C. has pursued, in the execution of this inquiry, is that of analysis. This he conceives to be the only sure mode of discovering truth, both in matters of external sense, and objects of abstract reason.

But, says he, *pref. p. ix.* 'in order to conduct analysis with success, much depends on the previous knowledge of the person who conducts it. It is evidently required, that he who undertakes to examine this branch of science in this way, should be acquainted with the human mind in its sane state; and that he should not only be capable of abstracting his own mind from himself, and placing it before him, as it were, so as to examine it with the freedom, and with the impartiality of a natural historian; but he also should be able to take a calm and clear view of every cause which tends to affect the healthy operations of mind, and to trace their effects. He should be able to go back to childhood, and see how the mind is modelled by instruction. He who cannot do this will never proceed farther in knowledge than what he has acquired by books or by tuition; and how very limited this knowledge is, in regard to the pathology of the human mind, need not be mentioned.'

However, after the business of analysis has been finished, the most useful and difficult task still remains, that of applying the result, or general principle, to explain and arrange the individual facts.

'It is this,' says doctor C., *pref. p. x.* 'indeed, which distinguishes the man of science from the mere scholar. It is, of all mental employments, the most difficult, the most liable to error, and yet the most valuable when well accomplished. It is the abridgment of facts and simplification of all knowledge. Experience and observation teach us a vast crowd of facts. We multiply these by analyzing them; in analyzing them we generally obtain a knowledge of the causes of a number of their properties, and often of the cause of their production; and we are thus enabled to reduce a number of effects under a few general principles. Hence the utility of this process. But that it is a process which is often dangerous, and even hurtful to science, must also be admitted. It is dangerous when we try to reduce general principles under principles still more general, or, as it were, to find out the ultimate source of all our knowledge: for where are the facts to guide us in such a research? The ultimate principles are excluded from human research, but, unfortunately, not from human curiosity. It is hurtful to science when a man of genius attempts to reduce the facts of any branch of science under general principles, while the facts themselves are too scanty to admit of just conclusions being drawn, for then wild hypotheses must necessarily arise. Let not this observation be construed into an opinion, that hypothesis is useless. There is a period in knowledge when it must be indulged in if we mean to make any progress. It is that period when the facts are too numerous to be recollected without general principles, and yet where the facts are too few to constitute a valid theory.'

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The objects of the author's inquiry being thus the causes of insanity and the morbid affections of the human intellect, he is led to form four classes of causes, viz. '1st, Physical or corporeal causes; 2dly, Over-exertion of the mental faculties; 3dly, A disproportionate activity of some of the said faculties; and, lastly, the passions, or their influence.'

On this account the work is divided into three parts, the first of which comprehends an inquiry into 'the physical or corporeal causes of delirium, and other derangements of mind: the second contains an account of the various morbid changes which each faculty of the human mind is subject to, either from an overstraining, or from an original or acquired disproportionate activity. The third treats of the passions.'

In the execution of these different parts, we have noticed some little inequality. The first and second are treated with much ingenuity and acuteness of observation; but the third, probably, from the great difficulties of the subject, will not be quite so satisfactory to some classes of readers, though in many respects useful and interesting to others.

In justice to the author, we introduce the following passage in further illustration of his plan.

Pref. p. xiv. 'The physical causes of delirium, such as the corporeal effects of various excesses, excessive heat, sudden transitions of temperature, fevers, certain poisons, &c. necessarily act in a physical manner on the human frame. They produce morbid alterations in the living solids, and these generally affect the fluids. Some of the causes of this class operate most powerfully on the heart and arteries and absorbent system, others operate with most force on the brain and nerves; but, in all cases, not only sensation, but the action of the mental faculties are disturbed in consequence of these physical causes. To trace their operation, then, with success, it becomes necessary to be well acquainted with the general offices and properties of the living solids. But as it is probable, that many readers, into whose hands this work may fall, are not fully acquainted with these subjects, I have judged it necessary to begin with the doctrines of irritability and sensibility, as explanatory of many of the *data* on which much of the reasoning that follows is founded; and as containing many axioms to which frequent reference is made. This becomes so much the more necessary, also, as I entertain peculiar notions concerning the manner in which corporeal sensation is carried on, and as the phenomena of many illusions, to which our understanding is exposed, are to be accounted for by these.'

In considering the morbid conditions of the different faculties of the mind, the author has combined the physiology, or natural history of the mind, with it's pathology, or morbid history.

Such is the general plan of the publication, on which we have been thus full, in order to show, that doctor C. has taken up and treated the subject in a somewhat new point of view.

By way of properly introducing his subject, the author gives a chapter on irritability, in which we find many pertinent and sensible remarks, but not much new matter. Various *axioms* are
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formed concerning the action of stimuli on the irritability of the system; some of them, perhaps, without a sufficient attention to fact. The second, which is, in some respects, also an ingenious chapter, is on sensation. Here our author differs a little from those who have preceded him.

He tells us, p. 55, that 'it is a circumstance of remarkable singularity, that all our best metaphysicians should agree in considering sensation as a mere affection of the mind, and that men, acquainted with the œconomy of the animal, should, in their physiological writings, have so servilely copied after them. We shall soon be convinced that the affections of the brain and nerves, which arise immediately from the action of an external body, are phenomena totally distinct from those produced on the mind. It becomes necessary, therefore, to distinguish them from each other by different appellations.'

To the change produced in the nerve by the application of an external body, the name of nervous impression has already been given; and to the change produced in the brain by the communication of a nervous impression, doctor C. applies the term *sensorial impression*. This leads the author to mark the distinction between nervous impression and consciousness, which is done with some precision and correctness.

'From this we learn,' says the author, p. 61, 'that mere impressions on the nerves and brain are quite distinct from the affections of the mind; and when we speak of these impressions in general, we shall always mean the corporeal affection, in contradistinction to mental perception, which only takes place when the impression operates on the mind.'

On the nature of the changes produced in the nerves by the actions of external bodies, we meet with several ingenious remarks, but the subject is still involved in considerable difficulty. The way in which mixed impressions are received, doctor C. conceives to be this, p. 109: 'when a body capable of affecting the same nerve, or set of nerves, in a variety of ways, is applied to such a nerve, or nerves, the various impressions which it is capable of yielding, take place at one and the same time; and the mind either may apprehend them in their mixed and confused state, or under certain circumstances may attend to the individual impressions of which the mixed one is composed.'

Having considered, in a full and physiological manner, the five external senses, of touch, seeing, hearing, smelling, and tasting, he comes to that of *cænesthesis*, or *self-feeling*. Here the author's observations are chiefly taken from Hubner, a late german writer.

In analysing the nature of sensation, doctor C. arrives at several conclusions, which differ very materially from those of metaphysicians. He thinks it unjustifiable, as well as unphilosophical, to say, 'that all pain is only an affection of the mind.' 'One might,' he contends, 'as well assert, that it is the mind which smells, sees, hears, tastes, and touches. The mind has no suffering whatever from mere bodily pain, except that which it derives in

in an indirect manner from the reflection, that the bodily injury received may be followed by lamentable consequences.'

'The affection of the nerves, therefore, which occasions in us the feeling of pain, is,' he observes, 'always to be considered as a physical derangement of its structure. If that derangement be only momentary, as happens in consequence of a slight blow, the pain is momentary; if it continues, and spreads itself, as in the case when a caustic is applied, the pain is lasting.'

On this intricate subject, doctor C. undoubtedly deserves the attention of the inquirer, as he has ventured to treat it as a physician rather than a metaphysician; and we think it, at least probable, that we may sooner arrive at truth by the track of anatomy and physiology, than that of metaphysics.

The fifth chapter opens with an inquiry concerning the nature and physical causes of delirium, especially that of lunatics. Here our author makes use of the expression, *diseased perceptions*, or *notions*, in preference to that of *false*, or *erroneous perceptions*, employed by other writers, because the ideas, in every kind of delirium, arise from a disordered state of the brain, or nerves, or both, and because the term *erroneous* does not describe any thing peculiar to delirium, as the most sane and wise men frequently have some erroneous notions which they firmly believe, and which often influence their conduct.

The diseased notions entertained by delirious people are, according to doctor C., of two kinds.

P. 140. '1st. They are diseased perceptions, referred by the patient to some object of external sense; as when he believes he sees, hears, tastes, and smells things which have no real existence; as when he imagines he sees holes in the wall, through which monsters of various kinds appear in a menacing, or terrifying manner; or when he supposes himself surrounded by dangerous beasts, and serpents.

'2dly. They are diseased abstract notions, referable to the qualities and conditions of persons and things, and his relation to them; as when he imagines that his friends have conspired to kill him; that he is reduced to beggary; that he is forsaken by God, &c.'

The author also observes, that upon taking a general view of all the more evident exciting causes of delirium, without regarding their mode of action, they will be found capable of being reduced under these following heads.

P. 141. '1st. Physical, or corporeal causes; such as too great determination of blood to the head, as in fevers, or intoxication, diseased viscera of the abdomen, poisons, excessive discharges, &c.

'2dly. Too great, or too long continued exertion of the mental faculties, as in the delirium which often succeeds long continued and abstract calculation; and the deliria to which men of genius are peculiarly subject.

'3dly. Strong passions, such as anger, grief, pride, love, &c.'

As these different classes of causes have no evident analogy with each other, it becomes difficult to account for their producing the general effect, delirium. The discovery of the principle, or prin-

principles, on which they act, and by which they produce similar morbid phenomena, in the body and mind of different individuals, is a matter of great importance and much difficulty, forming the principal object of inquiry. Our author attempts it by a strict examination of facts; and here we find him differing from the learned and ingenious Dufours, a french writer, who has endeavoured to show, that 'the diseases of the external senses, by giving rise to erroneous perceptions, produce aberrations of reason.'

The whole of the chapter demands the notice of the practical reader, both on account of the manner in which the doctor has conducted his inquiry, and the variety of facts which are brought into view. We can only notice the general deductions.

P. 165.—'First, we observe, that a mere increased determination of blood to the head, provided the circulation be so free that a great congestion does not arise, is not the cause of delirium, since in the cases of severe exercise, and in many fevers, where the pulse beats 120 in a minute, and the face is flushed and full, no such phenomenon takes place.

'2dly. That an increased quantity of blood sent to the head, or the quickness with which it circulates there, are not the immediate causes of delirium, is further evinced by this fact, that the delirium of fevers, and many cases of phrenzy, begin when there is very little quickness of pulse, and often continue after that symptom is greatly subsided.

'3dly. Dissections demonstrate in the clearest manner, that although a vast variety of morbid appearances have been detected within the heads of delirious people, especially phrenitic patients, yet there is no one which has been uniformly present in all analogous cases; and therefore there is no reason to believe that any one of them is to be considered as the immediate cause of the alienation of mind, but rather as accidental effects, arising from various causes which have occurred, either previous to the commencement of the disorder, or during its attack. Tumors of various kinds, ossifications of arteries and the membranes enveloping the brain, hydatids, stony concretions, increased vascularity, diminished vascularity, coloured spots, increased density, increased specific gravity; preternatural laxity, ulceration, ruptured vessels, extravasations of blood, lymph, and serum, not only on the surface, but in the cavities and in the substance of the brain; and, independent of all these appearances, a vast variety in the form of the skull, has been detected in various cases. The chief circumstance, however, which proves that they are rather consequences than causes of any particular disease, is, that they have been found, not only in phrenitic patients, but also in idiots, melancholic patients, hysterical ones, paralytic ones, and epileptic people.

'4thly. In all cases of that peculiar kind of delirium called phrenzy, the first phenomenon of disease appears to be a disordered state of sensorial feeling, if the expression be permitted. All impressions on the brain are powerfully felt there. Those derived from the external senses, if they are calculated to excite any desire, or passion, do so in a most uncommon degree; and the reaction of these mental impressions disorder the whole frame. The person acts as if from an involuntary impulse, which does not admit of the operations of reason. Hurry, uncommon strength, bustle, and violence, characterize all the actions and

and expressions of the patient ; every thing creates an uncommon excitement of nervous energy in him.

In short, the doctor concludes, p. 174, ' that the delirium of maniacs, when it has the peculiar character of that which has been described, always arises from a specific diseased action of those fine vessels which secrete the nervous fluid in the brain. This diseased action appears to be one which, independent of its specific nature, by which it is distinguished from common inflammation, or serophula, is a preternatural increased one ; and this I think is proved by the quickness of the external senses, the irascibility of the mind, the heat of the skin, the flushed countenance, and uncommon energy of body which maniacs evince. This hypothesis explains the reason also why it often has periodical exacerbations, and remissions. They who believe that tumors, ulcers, and ossifications of the brain, or increased specific gravity, or increased hardness of the same, give birth to mania, must necessarily be at a loss to explain why the delirium ever ceases while such causes exist ; but if it arises from diseased action, it must cease, and may, or may not return, according as a variety of other circumstances conspire to its re-excitement.'

On the different kinds of delirium, the predisposition to insanity, and the exciting causes of it, we have likewise met with many sensible remarks.

In chap. vi the author considers the *deliria* which proceed from morbid nervous impressions, and presents us with a correct and interesting history of hypochondriasis. Many curious facts and histories are also detailed in support of the positions that are maintained. The subject of mind is treated at much length ; but we cannot perceive that Dr. C. has gone far in clearing away the difficulties that surround it.

In examining what our author calls the diseases of *attention*, he is led to consider a very curious fact respecting the exercise of that faculty of the mind, in a particular manner. This is the readiness with which we attend to some subjects and objects in preference to others. The explanation of it, he thinks, must depend either on the constitutional proneness we have to certain passions and emotions rather than to others ; or on the influence of certain desires, passions, and emotions, without this original proneness, acquired by education, our situation in life, professions, or customary avocations, &c. Whether the former have any real existence, may, perhaps, be disputed ; but the latter must be allowed to have great power over the mind. But how far they are sufficient for the explication which the author attempts, would require much more investigation to determine. They have, however, conducted him to some interesting remarks on education.

The morbid alterations to which attention is subject, and the causes that produce them, are traced with considerable ingenuity. Speaking of the influence of corporal causes, the author observes, and we believe justly, that the chronic weakness that attends scrofula and rickets has no influence in lessening the energy of any of the mental faculties ; while chronic weakness, arising from poor diet, bad air, and confinement in warm apartments, excessive evacuations, and the abuse of corporal desires, weakens attention, and consequently debilitates all the faculties of the mind. This is an extremely curious circumstance, of which Dr. C. has not offered any thing in explanation.

Does

Does it depend upon the weakness in one case being principally topical, and in the other general?

On mental perception and its diseases, and on memory and the association of ideas, and their diseases, we have two chapters. The doctor has here suggested many pertinent remarks, which, from the narrow limits of our Review, we are obliged to pass over. Those on judgment and its defects have not much novelty.

In considering imagination and genius, and the diseases connected with them, Dr. C. has not stepped much out of the common track. They have, however, occasionally afforded him opportunities of introducing useful reflections. The remarks on the exercising of the mind and body are too interesting to be omitted.

p. 205.—‘Although every part of the human body which acts, and which suffers action, may be strengthened and improved by a due degree of exercise, yet we know from experience, that when the exercise is continued too long, or is made to consist of a repetition of violent exertion, much mischief and danger generally ensue; the texture of the part suffers a considerable, though not an apparent change, and great disorder and debility follow.

‘This physiological observation applies equally to the brain as to every other part of our frame, whether we consider it a part acting on the mind by means of impressions derived from external objects, or as acted on by the mind, as is the case in every effort of memory, judgment, imagination, passion, &c.

‘In the exercise of the body, as well as in that of the mind, it is impossible to fix any general standard for all mankind, so intirely does this depend upon various circumstances, such as age, sex, temperament, state of bodily health and habit, &c. But there is a faithful monitor within us, in our own feelings, which ought to warn us when any exertion of the mental faculties is carried too far and ought to be discontinued. What I allude to is a sense of bodily fatigue and weariness, which always follows long-continued and excessive attention; to which may be added feelings, which every person experiences on such occasions; a sort of fullness, tension, and uneasiness about the forehead, often terminating in severe head-ach.’

On volition and its diseases the inquirer will occasionally meet with useful hints. Here the able author differs in his arrangement from the writer of *Zoonomia*. The spasmodic and convulsive disorders Dr. Darwin considers as efforts of volition, and of course classes them with the diseases of that faculty.

Vol. II, p. 90.—‘To me,’ says Dr. C., ‘it appears that all the spasmodic diseases arise from physical stimuli, applied either to the brain itself, or to distant parts of the nervous system, as in the case of worms, or acrid matters in the stomach and intestines, tumours, wounds, fractured bones, &c.; and, that the nervous impression of these stimuli, so far from exciting the will, counteracts its efforts, and represses, as it were, its action. The convulsions of epilepsy, and tetanus, for instance, are not, in my opinion, voluntary actions excited for the purpose of counteracting pleasure or pain, as Dr. Darwin imagines, but are involuntary acts of the external muscles, produced by the transmission and irritation of a powerful and unusual nervous impression; and I therefore coincide with Sauvage, Vogel, Hoffman, and Cullen,

Cullen, and all former writers of repute, in considering these as diseases which ought properly to be called involuntary ones.'

The last book is on the passions, a subject which has been fully handled by the moralist and metaphysician, but which our author takes up in a medical point of view. The passions he considers as a part of the constitution, to be examined with the eye of the natural historian, and the spirit and impartiality of the philosopher. The subject is, however, in itself of so difficult a nature, and connected with so great a variety of circumstances, that we can here do little more than take notice of a very few of the ingenious author's remarks. After endeavouring to trace the mode by which passions of different kinds are excited, he says,

P. 128.—' Now as the effects of any particular passion on the organs of involuntary action differ in degree only, it is evident that their exciting cause also differs only in this respect; and as the effect of the passions on the will are different, not only in different people, but in the same person according as he is placed in different circumstances, it appears evident that passion is a very complicated affection. The corporeal effects of passion arise from the sensorial impressions of the object foreseen, from the pain or pleasure which excite volition, from the straining of attention, and also from the voluntary acts.'

The mind, he supposes, may be disordered by them in this way;

P. 139.—' When the sensorial impressions, which arise from the primary desire, or aversion, that give birth to the passion, and those which arise from the corporeal pleasure or pain felt at the præcordia are violent, they act on the brain in the same manner as the physical stimuli mentioned in the chapter on Delirium; and they consequently induce this state of mind, and become common exciting causes of insanity. If there be a strong hereditary predisposition, the delirium often continues for a considerable length of time; if there be no predisposition, it generally subsides very soon; but if the exciting passion be often renewed, a predisposition seems now and then to be accidentally formed, and thus, in those who have no original or hereditary taint, downright insanity may arise from violent passions.'

Dr. C. here endeavours to mark the effects of the different passions, and the ways in which they produce mental derangement; but though the attempt may not always be attended with success, it is frequently ingenious and seldom useless.

In concluding this very full analysis, we must observe, in justice to the very able author, that he has certainly opened a new track, which we hope future inquirers will extend and improve. We could have wished, however, that in doing this he had attended a little more to the practical parts of the subject, that he had furnished practitioners, who, we are fearful, are in general but little informed in respect to the management of the disorder, with a few plain practical rules concerning the treatment of the disease under its varied forms. In future editions of the work, we have no doubt but that Dr. Crichton will direct his attention more particularly to this point.

A. F.

POETRY. THE DRAMA.

ART. X. *Poems*, by William Cowper, of the Inner Temple, Esq.
2 Vols. Pot 8vo. Price 5s. boards.

The same. 2 Vols. Fool's-cap 8vo. With ten plates. Pr. 14s. bds.

The same. 2 Vols. Small 12mo. Price 6s. boards. Johnson.

THE pursuit of poetry is accompanied with so much pleasure, and, when successful, is rewarded with so much celebrity, that we are not surprised when we find it engaging the activity of several adventurers: so numerous, however, are the difficulties, which obstruct the path to success, and so great must be the powers and attainments which overcome these difficulties, that we are not surprised when we observe the few, who obtain the object of their exertions, and the many, who experience nothing from their attempts but a consciousness of vain labours and misapplied time. Of the poetic race, as of that righteousness, it may, with little impropriety, be said that, 'though all run, one alone receiveth the prize;' and when we seriously reflect on all the requisites for the forming of an accomplished poet, we are more inclined to wonder, that this distinguished favourite of heaven should occur so frequently, than that he should be so rarely seen in the walks of men. With a vigorous and exercised imagination, he must possess a peculiar quickness of apprehension, power of combination, exquisiteness of sensibility, and rectitude of taste. Science must enlarge his mental prospect, and language, in its changeful and most beautiful forms, must sit upon his tongue. He must see with eyes, which, commanding a wide horizon, present him with every object distinctly defined, yet variously and splendidly coloured. He must, in short, be the darling of nature, studiously educated and adorned by art. Ought it then to be regarded as strange, that, while the chime of the verse maker is perpetually fretting our ears, and the fabrication of sonnets, elegies, and odes proceeds with daily and undiminishing alacrity, a genuine production of the muse should but seldom appear, to challenge and command our respect? Some, however, of these happier offspring of intellect do now and then come abroad; and we are always ready to hail their presence, and, with unaffected pleasure, to introduce them to the plaudit of the world.

If the days, in which we immediately live, have not shown themselves to be equally rich in poetic talent with those, which, producing the extraordinary minds of a Shakspeare and a Milton, of a Dryden and a Pope, have raised our country to a doubtful competition with Greece in her pride of youth, still are they not exposed to the reproach of any peculiar penury or destitution; and some of our contemporaries might be adduced to demonstrate, that our northern clime can still give birth to souls, who are able, occasionally, to wing their flight to 'the heaven of invention,' and to bring thence the evidence of their 'commerce with the skies' in 'thoughts that breathe, and words that burn.'

In the foremost rank, and, perhaps, at the head of these more æthereal spirits, we must place the benevolent, the moral, the religious, and we were almost induced to say, the holy Cowper. In all his writings, which discover great facility of composition, and a redundant flow of matter, we are gratified with the authentic and rich fancy of a poet. Without any apparent effort, and disdainful of all ambitious and affected ornaments, the muse of Cowper can be impressive and pathetic, dignified and sublime. She can also be playful, yet still graceful; and can pass

'from grave to gay' with as much temper and propriety, as she can 'from lively to severe.' With the weapons of satire in her grasp, she wields them to correct, and not to wound; and, while she chastises, she discovers no passion but that of generous and elevated pity. If the language of her simplicity sometimes approach too nearly to that of prose, or if her carelessness, or, perhaps, deficient ear be occasionally guilty of an inharmonious verse, she fails not to make us an ample and speedy compensation, by surprising us with some new and unexpected combination of thought, or by amusing us with some precise and appropriate delineation of fancy: her voice also inspires us with respect, as, in some measure, hallowed by her uniform consecration of it to the eternal interests of man, and to the honour of man's Creator and Redeemer.

The *Task* is truly a work of high and rare merit, the principal, and, as we think, the *only great* fault of which is the want of a regular plan, and a more obvious arrangement. The connection of the several parts, in this excellent poem, is not every where sufficiently ascertained, and a slight degree of obscurity is sometimes the consequence: while we admire detached passages, we are now and then disposed to question their right to the places which they occupy; and we look in vain for that pleasure, which results from the contemplation of a PERFECT WHOLE; or of a composition, which, possessing, (according to Aristotle's definition of these constituent parts,) a beginning, a middle, and an end, delights us with its symmetry, and satisfies us with its roundness and integrity.

But the works of Mr. C. have been now for so long a time before the public, that their many beauties and their few defects have been fully canvassed, and have experienced a just appreciation. To insist, therefore, either on the latter or the former of these, and to support our decisions with extracts from the poems, would only be to tell our readers what they already know, and to present them with what they now very generally possess. These effusions of a poetic mind, and a heart affluent in virtue, are strong with the vital principle, and will survive to solicit the judgment of critics who are yet unborn. For us it only remains to express our approbation of the new and elegant edition, in which they now lie before us, and which we can pronounce to be correct. On perusing these volumes we were gratified by discovering in them one poem which has not before been offered to the public. This we will extract for the entertainment of our readers; and to evince, that the author of 'the *Task*' has not forgotten to write, with the pen of simplicity and pathos, what the man of taste must approve, and of sensibility must feel.

'ON THE RECEIPT OF MY MOTHER'S PICTURE OUT OF NORFOLK, THE GIFT OF MY COUSIN ANN BODHAM.

'Ow that those lips had language! Life has pass'd
With me but roughly since I heard thee last.
Those lips are thine—thy own sweet smiles I see,
The same that oft in childhood solaced me;
Voice only fails, else, how distinct they say,
"Grieve not, my child, chase all thy fears away!"
The meek intelligence of those dear eyes
(Blest be the art that can immortalize,

The art that baffles time's tyrannic claim
To quench it) here shines on me still the same,

• Faithful remembrancer of one so dear,
Oh welcome guest, though unexpected, here!
Who bidd'st me honour with an artless song,
Affectionate, a mother lost so long.
I will obey, not willingly alone,
But gladly, as the precept were her own;
And, while that face renews my filial grief,
Fancy shall weave a charm for my relief—
Shall sleep me in Elysian reverie,
A momentary dream, that thou art she.

• My mother! when I learn'd that thou wast dead,
Say, wast thou conscious of the tears I shed?
Hover'd thy spirit o'er thy sorrowing son,
Wretch even then, life's journey just begun?
Perhaps thou gav'st me, though unseen, a kiss
Perhaps a tear, if souls can weep in bliss—
Ah that maternal smile! it answers—Yes.
I heard the bell toll'd on thy burial day,
I saw the hearse that bore thee flow away,
And, turning from my nurs'ry window, drew
A long, long sigh, and wept a last adieu!
But was it such?—It was.—Where thou art gone
Adieus and farewells are a sound unknown.
May I but meet thee on that peaceful shore,
The parting sound shall pass my lips no more!
Thy maidens griev'd themselves at my concern,
Oft gave me promise of a quick return.
What ardently I wish'd, I long believ'd,
And disappointed still, was still deceiv'd;
By disappointment every day beguiled,
Dupe of *to-morrow* even from a child.
Thus many a sad to-morrow came and went,
Till, all my stock of infant sorrows spent,
I learn'd at last submission to my lot,
But, though I less deplor'd thee, ne'er forgot.

• Where once we dwelt our name is heard no more,
Children not thine have trod my nurs'ry floor;
And where the gard'ner Robin, day by day,
Drew me to school along the public way,
Delighted with my bawble coach, and wrapt
In scarlet mantle warm, and velvet capt,
'Tis now become a history little known,
That once we call'd the past'ral house our own,
Short lived possession! but the record fair,
That mem'ry keeps of all thy kindness there,
Still outlives many a storm that has effac'd
A thousand other themes less deeply trac'd.
Thy nightly visits to my chamber made,
That thou might'st know me safe and warmly laid;
Thy morning bounties ere I left my home,
The biscuit, or confectionary plum;

The fragrant waters on my cheeks bestow'd,
 By thy own hand, till fresh they shone and glow'd :
 All this, and, more endearing still than all,
 Thy constant flow of love, that knew no fall,
 Ne'er roughen'd by those cataracts and breaks
 That humour interpos'd too often makes ;
 All this still legible in mem'ry's page,
 And still to be so, to my latest age,
 Adds joy to duty, makes me glad to pay
 Such honours to thee as my numbers may ;
 Perhaps a frail memorial, but sincere,
 Not scorn'd in heaven, though little notic'd here.

‘ Could time, his flight revers'd, restore the hours
 When, playing with thy vesture's tissued flowers,
 The violet, the pink, and jessamine,
 I prick'd them into paper with a pin,
 (And thou wast happier than myself the while,
 Would'st softly speak, and stroke my head and smile)
 Could those few pleasant hours again appear,
 Might one wish bring them, would I wish them here ?
 I would not trust my heart—the dear delight
 Seems so to be desir'd, perhaps I might.—
 But no—what here we call our life is such,
 So little to be loved, and thou so much,
 That I should ill requite thee to constrain
 Thy unbound spirit into bonds again.

‘ Thou, as a gallant bark from Albion's coast,
 (The storms all weather'd and the ocean cross'd)
 Shoots into port at some well-haven'd isle,
 Where spices breathe and brighter seasons smile,
 There sits quiescent on the floods that show
 Her beauteous form reflected clear below,
 While airs impregnated with incense play
 Around her, fanning light her streamers gay ;
 So thou, with sails how swift ! hast reach'd the shore
 “ Where tempests never beat nor billows roar,”
 And thy loved confort on the dang'rous tide
 Of life, long since, has anchor'd at thy side.
 But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
 Always from port withheld, always distress'd—
 Me howling winds drive devious, tempest toss'd,
 Sails ript, seams op'ning wide, and compass lost,
 And day by day some current's thwarting force
 Sets me more distant from a prosperous course.
 But oh the thought, that thou art safe, and he !
 That thought is joy, arrive what may to me.
 My boast is not that I deduce my birth
 From loins enthron'd and rulers of the earth ;
 But higher far my proud pretensions rise—
 The son of parents pass'd into the skies.
 And now, farewell—time, unrevok'd, has run
 His wonted course, yet what I wish'd is done.

By contemplation's help, not sought in vain,
 I seem t' have liv'd my childhood o'er again;
 To have renew'd the joys that once were mine,
 Without the sin of violating thine;
 And, while the wings of fancy still are free,
 And I can view this mimic shew of thee,
 Time has but half succeeded in his theft—
 Thyself removed, thy power to soothe me left.

W. B.

ART. XI. *The Old English Gentleman, a Poem.* By Mr. Polwhele. 8vo. 145 pages. Price 6s. boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

IN *fir Humphrey Andarton*, Mr. P. has drawn the sketch of a character, as he observes, 'now almost extinct in this island'—a country gentleman of family, inheriting from his ancestors the manners and amusements of the last century. If the prototypes, however, of such a character be rare, we have several very excellent copies of it: to the names of *fir Roger de Coverly*, and *'squire Western*, the recollection of our readers will probably furnish many others in addition. It is the object of our author to contradistinguish the manners of an old english country gentleman, from those of the modern borough-mongers, merchants, and miners: the scene of the poem lies in Cornwall, a county peculiarly favourable, as it not only furnished him with one or two primitive 'squires, * such as were formerly to be seen in almost every part of England, but with an abundant spawn of the latter description; that is to say, of 'gentry who owe their dignity either to the borough or the mine.'

The first book describes the mansion-house, the ruinous castle, &c. of Andarton, the family of which is traced to very remote antiquity; the characters, which succeed, are those of the present possessor, *fir Humphrey*, of his maiden sister *Rachel*, his only child *miss Prue*, and *Harriet*, *fir Humphrey's* second wife. In the second book is given a sketch of *fir Humphrey's* private life; his ordinary mode of spending the day, together with the various occupations of the other parts of his family: *fir Humphrey's* sports are described at large; his hunting, his companions of the field, his feasting at harvest home, at Christmas, at the anniversary of his birth-day, &c. The book concludes with the birth of a son, *Allen de Andarton*, by his new wife *Harriet*.

To what extent this poem is to be spun out, or what the plan is for it's future conduct, we know not: as at present, the first two books only are published.

Something more is expected of a painter than mere accuracy of outline: a harmony of light and shade, together with a richness and a glow of colouring, with numerous subordinate combinations, are necessary to give life and interest to a landscape: *ut pictura poesis*; as it is with a picture, so it is with a poem; and we cannot but acknowledge, that in perusing the '*Old English Gentleman*,' we felt a languor creep over us. Mr. P. has merit for an attention to many minutiae in his descriptions, but he fails to inspire that interest and animation, which are absolutely necessary to deceive his readers into a belief, that they are present at the very scenes which he describes. When *fir Humphrey Andarton* is out with his hounds, we want to hear, as it were, the opening

ing of the pack echo in our ears; and when he presides at the frolic of a Christmas eve, we want to feel ourselves of the party: but let sir Humphrey be where he would, we could participate but little with his hilarity. Other readers may decide whether this be attributable to the languor of the poem, or the sluggishness of our imagination.

We shall present the reader with a few specimens.

Character of sir Humphrey's ancestors,

' Amid these grounds a race of spotless name,
Not trump'd by glory, or unknown to fame,
Their rural lives in calm succession past;
And saw good days, and peaceful breath'd their last.
Not that each worthy, tho' unstain'd by crimes,
Escap'd the modish errors of the times:
Yet, each descending to his father's vault,
His sin was soften'd to a trivial fault.'

' Yet not the Clarion's blast they vainly heard,
If war's wild arm his crimson banners rear'd:
Yet, as traditionary tales avouch,
If honour bade them their keen lances couch,
They brav'd the battle, or endur'd the siege,
And gain'd the applauses of their gracious liege;
When, anxious to relax the soldier's toils,
They deck'd, perchance, their hall with Gallic spoils.'

Rachel, sir Humphrey's maiden sister.

' Rachel, in truth, a notable old dame,
To thriftiness preferr'd the proudest claim;
Whether she lin'd her pasties, to assuage
Of all her farming-folks the hungry rage
With not an ounce of bacon, some aver,
But never spar'd, it seems, the *pomme de terre*;
Or, of her menial train contriv'd to staunch
With leek-stufft broth each stomach for the haunch;
Or, (as economists it well behoves
With strict attention to regard their loaves)
Indulg'd her household with a dainty treat,
Sweet barley-meal proportion'd to their wheat;
Or, all experiments resolv'd to try,
Mix'd with her wheaten flour the moister rye;
Or trick'd the government, still keen and arch,
By the nice conduct of potatoe-starch.'

' Meantime old Rachel would her charge resume,
And observation dart, from room to room;
The motions of her breathless housemaids watch,
And from the tap'stry-chamber strait dispatch
Their feet impatient from the blue, the red,
From the pal'd damask, to the new-chintz bed;
Nor quit their heels, till now, their labour done,
In each plump hand the nimble needle shone;

When, prying into every dusty nook,
 She *fuss'd*, to form arrangements with the cook.
 Nor sooner were o'erpast her kitchen cares,
 Than her snug closet, half-way up the stairs,
 With a quick jerk she duly would uncloset,
 In triumph tossing her red rivell'd nose;
 Thence, thro' a lattice light, keen glances throw
 O'er all the kitchen, opening wide, below;
 And shrewdly, though invisible herself,
 Mix in the bustle of each menial elf.

* There, two high chairs of oak, on either back
 With antique foliage carv'd, and glossy-black,
 As shone afloat the room the solar beam,
 From crimson cushions cast a dismal gleam.
 There stood in shadow a moth-eaten desk,
 And there a veteran cabinet grotesque,
 By some old aunt with filligree adorn'd,
 And a bare toilette, long as lumber scorn'd,
 Tho' rich enamel'd, nigh the damask-bed,
 Its posies once a golden radiance shed.
 On shelves above, were rang'd along the wall,
 To stimulate the stomach, or to pall,
 Pickles, or green or red, and potted meats,
 And sparkling syrups, and confection-sweets,
 And many a gallipot of rich preserves,
 And juleps, and still'd waters for the nerves,
 And, fit for Falstaff's self, delicious sack,
 But chief, a large case-bottle of coniac.

* Full oft would Harriet a kind wish impart,
 To aid the housewife in her various art.
 But, cautious lest another should eclipse
 Her fame in crust, in mangoes, or in hips,
 As Rachel still her art in secret plied,
 Her "boast in crowds, her solitary pride;"
 Untroubled each indulg'd her different taste;
 And Harriet read, while Rachel rais'd her paste.*

Miss Prue.

* Heavens! o'er her chamber what a rich display
 Of female frippery in disorder lay!
 Here, combs of tortoise, elephant or lead,
 There, powders that ambrosial essence shed;
 Here, patches and pomatums, and perfumes,
 There, friendly rouge to bring back female blooms;
 And cushions, stuck with many a black hair-pin;
 And night-gloves, from some former tripsey's skin;
 And brushes for the teeth, so ivory white;
 And two reflecting mirrors, burnish'd bright;
 Historic novels, Della Crusca stuff,
 A penknife here, and there a powder-puff;
 And "Modern Anecdotes," superbly drest,
 And "Beauties," in their finest forms, hot-press'd!

The social passion.

' Alas! where e'er we turn our aching eyes,
 The social passion languishes and dies;
 Tho' once it kindled up the baron's hall,
 And warm'd with equal rays the mud-built wall.
 While now the sounds of cordial union fail,
 Where glooms the lonesome vill o'er every dale;
 While floats no more the voice of castled mirth,
 And scarce a cricket cheers the cottage-hearth;
 Each little neighbourhood may, perhaps, afford
 Some grave historian of its ancient lord—
 Some hoary *peasant*, once a pamper'd groom,
 Who tells, with rueful air, the mansion's doom;
 When Sawle, in wedlock with Erixey linkt,
 In his old master was at length extinct,
 Where his fleet racer vanish'd from the view,
 And where the last goonhilly perish'd too—
 Some *gamekeeper*, who now with drooping mien,
 Eyes his bare plush, alas! no longer green;
 Laments his master (doom'd, far off to roam,
 An exile, for economy, from home);
 And, as each feature various griefs distort,
 Regrets the sad cessation of the sport,
 While boys with fearless shouts around him run,
 And at mid-day the poacher vaunts his gun—
 Perhaps some *vicar*, who, half-craz'd with care,
 Recounts the ruin of a thriftless heir,
 Pointing with signs that grief and pity mark,
 To his old patron's pale dismantled park,
 Fell'd trees, where whispering airs no longer play,
 And dismal windows that exclude the day!

ART. XII. *Oberon, a Poem, from the German of Wieland.* By William Sotheby, Esq. In two Volumes. Crown 8vo. 440 pages. Pr. 12s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THIS polished translation of a highly-polished poem is no otherwise introduced than by a short and simple dedication to sir Harry Englefield: Mr. S., doubtless, conceived, that any general prefatory remarks on the versatile genius, the ever-teeming fancy of Wieland, are now become superfluous and stale. We coincide in the opinion: simplicity is most flattering, and conciseness most significant. What Dr. Johnson wrote concerning Shakspeare may be repeated of Wieland, and some portion of it with peculiar reference to the present poem:

" Each change of many-colour'd life he drew,
 Exhausted worlds, and then imagin'd new:
 Existence saw him spurn her bounded reign,
 And panting time toil'd after him in vain."

The regions of fairy-land, however, are not indebted for their existence to the imagination, wanton and prolific as it is, of Wieland: the elfin king and the elfin queen have of old been familiar to the english ear,

ear, for the poetic pens of Chaucer and of Shakspeare have long since given to these 'airy nothings'

'A local habitation and a name.'

The latter author is generally supposed to have been indebted to the ancient french romance of 'Huon de Bourdeaux' for his Oberon and Titania*, a work which in the reign of Henry VIII was translated from the french by John Bourchier, lord Berners, and entitled 'the famous exploits of sir Hugh of Bourdeaux †.' To this romance Wieland is probably under considerable obligations in the poem before us, an analysis of which may, perhaps, be amusing.

Canto I. Sir Huon, the hero of the poem, is bound to Babylon:

' — the high emprise
That bade him forth, to knighthood's fearless eyes
Seem'd desperate in the days of Charlemagne.'

The knight, pursuing his journey, arrives at a forest of immeasurable extent, through which the pathway seems to wind; he enters, and throughout the day has to cut a laborious passage with his trusty blade; the shades of evening succeed, and the roar of lions thundering amidst the silence of the night adds to the horror of this unknown wood. Sir Huon's stout heart shakes:

' with sinews loose, unstrung,
His arm and knee drop nerveless: 'gainst his will
Fear stands upon his brow in dew-drops chill:'

pledged to proceed, however, he soon conquers this strange timidity, and, with his drawn falchion, works his way, till, at length, he finds a rocky sort of road, which he determines to pursue: the light of a distant fire flashes on his sight: our anxious hero hastens his steps, and perceives his path lead to a deep cavern, at the bottom of which 'sparkled a crackling flame.' Suddenly stands before him a being of wild and savage aspect, who, on his shoulder, bears a ponderous club. Sir Huon, undaunted, begins the story of his distress, and the woodman, to his utter astonishment, hears the almost forgotten sound of his mother-tongue, and welcomes the illustrious knight to Libanon; they both enter the cave, and Sherafmin recognizes in the young stranger the features of his former master Segewin, the brave duke of Guyenne, of whom sir Huon is the son and heir.

In recompense for the hospitality of his host, sir Huon relates to Sherafmin the object of his present adventurous pursuit, and thus are we introduced to one of the two main actions of the poem. Charlemagne had summoned the knight to claim his feudal rights at court; the emperor's second son, Scharlot, with the 'lord of Hohenblat,' had planned to slay him on his journey. Together with their train, they lurk in ambush in a wood, through which sir Huon passes; he is attacked by Scharlot, disguised as the duke of Ardenne's son, whose father was vanquished in a tournament by the father of sir Huon. Our hero slays his

* See the various annotations on the characters of Oberon and Titania in the *Midsummer Night's Dream*.

† Warton's *Observations on Spenser's Faerie Queene*. Vol. II, 138.
antagonist,

antagonist, and without suspicion proceeds on his journey : he discovers, on his arrival at Paris, the mistake he had committed, and the dangerous consequences which must attend it. The emperor is implacable : it is with the utmost difficulty that his uplifted arm is restrained from inflicting immediate punishment on the man whom he considers as the murderer of his son : the injured and indignant Huon in vain pleads aloud his innocence, and declares the treachery of Scharlot ; he offers to submit his cause to the decision of arms : the haughty Hohenblat accepts his challenge, and the solemn day is fixed for battle. The desperate combat, in which sir Huon kills his foe, is described with all the fire and enthusiasm of a warrior. ' The test of arms,' however, ' soothes not the father's woe,' and our unfortunate hero is banished from his paternal dominions, to return on pain of death without the literal completion of the following desperate injunctions : Vol. I, P. 34.

" Go hence to Bagdad : in high festal day
At his round table, when the caliph, plac'd
In stately pomp with splendid emirs grac'd,
Enjoys the banquet rang'd in proud array,
Slay him who lies the monarch's left beside,
Dash from his headless trunk the purple tide,
Then to the right draw near, with courtly grace
The beauteous heirefs of his throne embrace ;
And thrice with public kisses salute her as thy bride.

" And while the caliph, at the monstrous scene,
Such as before ne'er shock'd a caliph's eyes,
Stares at thy confidence in mute surprize,
Then, as the Easterns wont, with lowly mien
Fall on the earth before his golden throne,
And gain (a trifle, proof of love alone)
That it may please him, gift of friend to friend,
Four of his grinders at my bidding send,
And of his beard a lock with silver hair o'ergrown."

It is on this forlorn and solitary journey to Bagdad that sir Huon is benighted in the forest of Libanon ; Sherasmin, charmed at the heroism of his old master's son, and delighted with this strange and perilous adventurer, swears to attend sir Huon as a guide, and, to his dying day, participate his fortune.

The second canto opens with the departure of this noble pair : on the fourth morning they are attacked by a horde of wild arabs, but the active steel of sir Huon, and the trusty club of his companion, make so terrible a havoc with them, that the cowards clap spurs to their steeds, and flee from the disgraceful combat. From this scene of confusion and bloodshed the poet conducts us, by a rapid but beautiful transition, to an opposite one of the most enchanting simplicity and peace : sir Huon and his squire

' equipt in gallant trim
With palfrey and with sword, the spoils of fight,'
Frays among the vallies that wind at the foot of the mountain :

P. 42.— ' It was a fertile and well-cultur'd glade,
Gay interlac'd with many a silver rill,
That danc'd in sparkling currents down the hill ;
Whiten'd with flocks, and meads in bloom array'd ;

And

And many a hut, beneath the palmy wood
Of the brown dwellers of the valley flood.
Poor swains! that gaily work! in want how blest!
And, when in noon-tide shade they, weary, rest,
Beckon the pilgrim lorn to share their pastoral food.

‘ Here with the mid-day heat our knight oppress,
Begg from some shepherd-wife her simple fare;
With side-long glance the peasants scarcely dare
Peep at the stranger man in iron dress;
But soon his lovely mien and friendly tone
Gain all their hearts; and gradual bolder grown,
The smiling children with his ringlets play,
While the brave man, himself, as blithe as they,
Disports once more a child, by childish pleasure won.’

On the approach of evening, sir Huon reluctantly departs from this vale of felicity and innocence: a forest lies before him, from entering into which his guide most solicitously cautions him, as it is tenanted by a wicked goblin, who holds in it his monstrous court of foxes, harts, and deer, all of whom have been converted from their human shape by the fairy power of Oberon. The knight smiles at the timidity of his friend, and himself undaunted and inflexible, scorns to turn aside from the direct road to Bagdad: the intricacy of the wood increases; at length a distant castle glitters in the air, and from it's golden gates issues a silver car, drawn on by leopards, and driven by the beauteous Oberon himself. Old Sherasmin spurs on full speed; the knight himself betakes to flight; a terrible tempest which overtakes them is disregarded; and they stop not, till the wall of a cloister interrupts their career. It chanced to be the yearly festival of holy Agatha, and the solemn procession of nun and monk is just driven back in comic confusion by the violence of the tempest, as the two heroes seek security on this consecrated ground. Oberon, a lily in his hand, and an ivory horn depending from his neck, appears in the midst of them, and the storm in a moment subsides: he applies the horn to his lip, and an impulse, instantaneous and irresistible, to dance, seizes the motley crew; sir Huon is alone excepted, and he,

‘ unmov'd beholds the reeling trance,
While laughter shakes his breast to see the giddy train.’

At the entreaty of sir Huon, the spirit, waving his lily wand, dissolves the charm, and offers to the panting Sherasmin a golden but an empty bowl, desiring him to drink and recruit his strength; reluctantly he applies it to his lips, and the old man stares with joy, when suddenly he sees the goblet foaming with gascon wine! Oberon presents the ivory horn to Huon; it's virtues have been already evinced:

“ Does but its snail-like spiral hollow sing
A lovely note, soft swell'd with gentle breath,
Tho' thousand warriors threaten instant death,
And with advancing weapons round enring;
Then, as thou late hast seen, in restless dance
All, all must spin, and every sword and lance
Fall with th' exhausted warriors to the ground.
But if thou peal it with impatient sound,
I, at thy call, appear, more swift than lightning glance.”
Oberon

Oberon presents him also with the fairy bowl, in which the purest wine springs spontaneously to the mouth of him whose heart is innocent, but whose property it is to burn with 'guilt-avenging pains,' the wretch who touches it with polluted lips. After having given these pledges of his friendship, the fairy vanishes from their astonished sight, and our travellers pursue their journey with increased alacrity and confidence.

The third canto opens with an adventure, which leads to an interesting digression: the two heroes are accosted by the captain of a troop of warriors, who tells sir Huon, that he must either break a spear with him and come off victorious in the contest, or submit to implicit obedience, and, like his other subject knights, attempt to free his lovely bride from the brutal grasp of the giant Angulaffer, in whose iron castle, high on a rock, she is imprisoned. The astonished chieftain hears our hero accept his challenge, and express a desire to try his skill with him and all his train: each in his turn lies low before the prowess of sir Huon, who courteously assists them to rise from the ground, and is invited, in acknowledgement of his nobleness and valour, to partake of their banquet; he accepts the invitation, and offers to attempt the delivery of the fair female of the tower. The description of this adventure is very highly finished: the monster is vanquished by the brave son of Segewin, who delivers the transported Angela to her loved Alexis*. The knight and his squire pursue their journey: the viewless Oberon prepares for them a luxurious repast, and the soft melody of unnumber'd birds lulls them insensibly to sleep: but the restless fancy of sir Huon interrupts his repose: hitherto unconscious of the force of love, the novel sensation is excited in a dream: before him stands a female of such exquisite beauty, and such radiant charms, that his imagination hails her as a goddess.

In the fourth canto sir Huon relates to his friend Sherasmin the particulars of this most wonderful dream, and asks his opinion as to its purport, himself suspicious, that it may be the disclosure of his own future fortunes. The old squire very wisely recommends him to banish from his memory the darker bodings of his dream, and select for belief such portions of it only as delight his mind:

"Who knows, good Oberon our path may guide
And the dream-princess may again appear!
Meanwhile if hope, good sir, your spirits cheer,
Hope on—her dreams, at least, refresh the vital tide."

* The great difficulty of this achievement consisted in the invulnerability of Angulaffer's person so long as he was in possession of a magic ring, which he had stolen from Oberon: sir Huon slips the ring from the giant's finger whilst he is asleep, and keeps it himself with intention of restoring it to its owner. If sir Huon's courage had not been already established, he would have derived but little credit from the present combat: as it is, we cannot feel very anxious about his future safety, till in the bustle at the caliph's banquet (Canto v, st. xlii) he presents the ring—not indeed to its owner Oberon, but to the princess Rezia in pledge of his betrothed fidelity. Surely it would have been better to have given Angela the ring; or if gallantry must yield to the more vulgar virtue, honesty, the poet might easily have conveyed it to the fairy-king himself. The ring, however, is not without its use in the course of the poem: its magic influence, even whilst on Rezia's finger, operates in preserving her lover (Canto vii, st. xxxiii, &c).

Cheered by the arguments of his friend, sir Huon mounts his high-met-
tled steed, and early on the morning the travellers proceed. The re-
flections of Sherasmin (verses xx1 and xx11) as the recollection of his
far-distant native country comes across his mind, are exquisitely delicate.
The ring of Angulaffer saves our hero from the mortal fury of a lion,
which he attacks to preserve the life of a stranger, already faint with
fighting; the ungrateful saracen, indignant at the christian zeal of She-
rasmin, vaults on sir Huon's steed, and swiftly vanishes from sight: this
unlucky accident is soon forgotten: fortune throws a mule in the way
of our adventurers; they purchase it, and are safely conveyed to the
gates of Bagdad. Weary, and wandering through the streets, they meet,

‘ Propt on her crutch, a little aged crone
Who cross’d their path, slow tottering on alone,
With shrivell’d skin, pale cheek, and temples grey;’

they inquire for an inn, but the hospitable dame invites them to her
hut: they accept the invitation, and their hostess, in the course of con-
versation, informs them that on the morrow the sultan’s daughter, the
beauteous Rezia, is to be wedded to prince Babekān, the sovereign of
the druses, that the royal nuptials are to be celebrated with the most
profuse and sumptuous feasting, that the voice of jollity and mirth is
every where to be heard, excepting from the ill-fated Rezia herself, whose
aversion to her betrothed husband is unconquerable. The prating gran-
dam attributes this aversion to a dream which—‘ a dream! sir Huon
shouts with breath of flame’—pictured to the fancy of fair Rezia, ‘ a
strange young gentleman of graceful frame,

‘ Sweet, beauteous as a God!’

She relates the vision as it was told her by her daughter Fatma, who is
nurse to the young princess. Sir Huon and his companion retire to a
restless bed, meditating on this strange coincidence of dreams, and won-
dering, between hope and fear, to what consequence it may lead.

This manœuvre of Oberon, to fascinate on each other the affections
of Rezia and sir Huon, was probably suggested to Wieland by a story
in the Arabian Nights Entertainments (See the story of the Amours of
Prince Camaralzaman, Prince of the Isles of the Children of Khaledan,
and of Badoura, Princess of China. Arab. Nights, Vol. II.)

Canto v. Early on the morn the devoted virgin is arrayed with the
richest ornaments for her approaching nuptials: the skilful hands of
Fatma braid her soft ebon locks, and ‘ intertwine

‘ Pearls that more bright than glist’ning dew-drops shine.’

At the sound of cymbals the festive hall of the palace is crowded with
emirs and with viziers; the drusic prince appears, adorned with dia-
monds, and Rezia enters with her attendant virgins:

‘ Temper’d to mortal eye her beauty gleams
Beneath a veil, that, like the silver grey
Of twilight vapour, shades its dazzling ray:
Yet as she steps, the hall with heavenly lustre streams!’

This is the moment for the accomplishment of sir Huon’s arduous enter-
prize: Sherasmin steals forth at sun-rise to examine the castle’s site, and
make every possible preparation for carrying off the bride; the knight
himself sleeps till a later hour; he awakes; and to his astonished eyes ap-
pears

pearls prepared for him, doubtless by his friend the fairy, a court dress of uncommon splendour, 'complete from the snowy turban 'to the gilt leather of the little boot.' Before the cottage door stands a stately courser, richly caparisoned: the knight, taking leave of his wonder-stricken hostess, vaults on the prancing steed and proceeds to the imperial castle: his splendid dress and his majestic air ensure immediate admittance through the guarded doors which lead to the hall. Sir Huon enters, and advances to the table where, amidst his gazing guests, the hoary sultan,

' Busy with the bowl,
Suspends all other thoughts;'

On his left hand sits Babekan; our scornful hero instantly recognizes the ungrateful wretch whom yesterday he rescued from the jaws of a lion:

' Swift as the light he grasps the sabre's hilt;
Off at the instant flies the heathen's head!
And o'er the caliph and the banquet shed,
Up spirts the boiling blood, by dreadful vengeance spilt.'

While the shuddering guests stare at each other in stupid amazement, sir Huon clasps in his arms the lovely Rezia, and with glowing kisses covers her ruby lips. The sultan recovers from his confusion, stamps and storms, and, in a moment, a thousand thirsty weapons are upheld against the knight: instant death would have ensued if the cautious Huon had not gently breathed into his ivory horn: at the magic sound every weapon falls; the old and the young, the male and the female, the eunuch, the slave, and the sultan, all mingle in the tumultuous dance, and whirl, till giddy and exhausted, they sink successively and pant upon the ground. Our hero coolly walks up to where the sultan lies upon his pillow gasping for breath; but when he begs four grinders from his jaws, 'and from his reverend beard a lock of silver hair,' the caliph recovers strength, and like a maniac, writhes with rage. At the insulted monarch's signal,

' Up from their seats at once the pagans spring,
And foam and threat, and horrid vengeance swear;
Swords, lances, daggers, clatter in the air,
All press on Mahom's foe, and closely round enring.'

The intrepid knight wrenches a pole from one of his assailants, and swings it about with terrible activity; too closely pressed, however, he must have fallen a victim to their fury, if the faithful Sherasmin had not set to his lip the horn, which Huon had trusted to his care, and pealed it 'with impatient sound.' In a moment day is converted into midnight darkness, clap after clap resounds, and thunders rock the castle. Oberon himself appears shedding a lily fragrance round him. The lovers are taken under his protection; he wafts them in his aerial car through the pathless regions of the sky, and, before the morning sun has risen, safely descends with them, together with their attendants, Sherasmin and Fatma, upon the far-distant shore of Ascalon.

The descriptions in this canto are exquisitely finished: the mutual cognition of the lovers is finely expressed: the 'tipsy dance and jollity' produced by the soft breathing of the ivory horn we had already witnessed at the anniversary of St. Agatha's holy feast. Oberon's appearance is attended with circumstances of appropriate sublimity.

Canto

Canto vi. In the eagerness of flight, sir Huon, it should seem, forgot the caliph's grinders: Oberon, however, presents him with a little casket in which they are deposited, carefully packed up in cotton, together with a lock of silver beard, both plucked from the sultan as he swooned away, by a viewless sprite, 'one of the wood-god's train.' Oberon dispatches the lovers to Lepanto, thence to Salerno, and onward thence to Rome, where the pious Silvester is to crown their union:

"Oh! may ye not with inauspicious haste
The fruit forbidden prematurely taste!
Know, if ye rashly venture ere the time,
That Oberon, in vengeance of your crime,
Leaves you, without a friend, on life's deserted waste!"

With this affectionate warning they embark.

Each hour brings fuel to the flame of love: the sigh—the melting kiss—the soft, warm pressure of the hand—all, all contribute! The sly foreboding Sherasmin sees the impetuous passion rise: he sees and dreads the fatal consequence: to rouse the lovers, to while away the time, and, if possible, to divert their attention, the old man tells a tale, the January and May of Chaucer. This tale is introduced with inimitable art; its object is two-fold: on the part of Sherasmin, to urge the chastity of sir Huon as a debt of gratitude which he owes to the fairy-king; and on the part of the poet himself, to display the reason of Oberon and Titania's solicitude in the fate of the lovers. In that fanciful play, the *Midsummer-Night's Dream*, the interference of Oberon and Titania is unmeaning: they dispute, indeed, about 'a lovely boy, stolen from an indian king,' and their quarrel produces a few rocking winds and contagious fogs; but their tricks upon *Lysander* and *Demetrius*, upon *Hermia* and *Helena*, are quite whimsical and capricious. Wieland remembered the horatian rule, of which Shakspeare probably never heard,

'Nec Deus interfit, nisi dignus vindice nodus
Inciderit;'

Oberon and Titania are both heartily tired of being separated; their reconciliation, therefore, is an object of sufficient importance to excite an anxious interest in the fortunes of Rezia and sir Huon, by whose indissoluble attachment and impregnable fidelity they hope it may be effected*.

The seventh canto opens with the arrival of our voyagers at Lepanto. Sir Huon, tired of the vigilance and 'Mentor mien' of Sherasmin, dispatches the reluctant 'squire in a vessel bound to Marseilles, with the beard and grinders of the caliph, with which he is desired immediately to proceed to the emperor: the knight himself must celebrate the nuptial ceremony at Rome with Rezia, whose conversion to her lover's religion is completed by the baptismal rite, and the change of name from Rezia

* Mr. S. conceiving the english reader to be already sufficiently acquainted with the tale of Therasmin, by the January and May of Pope, has omitted nearly the whole of it, and contented himself with translating such portion only as immediately relates to the main object of the poem, and displays the exquisite contrivance of Wieland. We regret the omission.

to Amanda. On their passage—no guardian Sherafmin to quell the growing tumult of desire—the youthful couple feel their blood boil, their pulse beat quick: at length frail nature yields! V. II, P. 8.

‘ ——— His arms the maid enchain—
And while his glowing lip, embath'd in bliss,
Sucks nectar-dew in each inebriate kiss,
Impetuous passion streams thro' every throbbing vein.

‘ Amanda too, o'erpower'd with fond desires,
'To long-lost joys restor'd, thus warmly prest,
Reigns herself, caressing and carest,
To each warm kiss that wakening passion fires.
His mouth the never-sated draught renews,
And from her lip in sweet voluptuous dews
Drinks deep oblivion of fore-boded woes!
Desire, insensibly, more daring grows,
And love, ere Hymen crowns, their secret union views!

‘ At once the heav'ns are darken'd, quench'd each star!
Ah! happy pair! they knew it not—the wave
Howls as unfetter'd winds o'er ocean rave:
Their tempest-laden pinions roar from far!
They hear it not—with rage encircled round,
Stern Oberon flying thro' the gloom profound
Rushes before their face—they hear him not!
And thrice the thunder peals their boded lot:
And, ah! they hear it not, each sense in rapture drown'd!’

The fury of the storm threatens instant shipwreck: the captain conceiving the guilt of some one to be the cause, assembles the crew, and proposes that he on whom the lot should fall be immediately cast into the sea. Sir Huon is the victim! He acknowledges the justice of his fate and plunges to appease the tempest: the enamoured fair clasps wildly round his neck; the lovers, locked in each other's arms, are born upon the billows, and by the magic of Angulaffier's ring, float safely to a bare and rocky island, where no vegetation gives a shelter from the fierce and burning sun-beams. The horn and bowl, the fairy gifts are gone, and famine stares them in the face.

Through the last fifty stanzas of this canto runs one uninterrupted and full stream of tenderness; the contented suffering of Amanda—Amanda, nourished in oriental luxury, whose delicate limbs were ever wont to rest upon the softest cushions, and around whose head the 'lily's perfume'd breath or scent of vernal rose' wafted perpetual fragrance, now doomed to lie within a cavern, simply strewn with moss, and in continual dread of unsatiable hunger—the contented suffering of Amanda, the dangerous and exhausting labours of sir Huon over rocks and precipices in search of food, and the sweet recompense of his toil at evening—the smile or the kiss of his beloved, are all of them described in the most eloquent and touching strains. Mr. S. imbibes the fervour of his original; and communicates it to his reader.

Canto VIII. ‘ One rocky barrier yet remained untried:’ the scanty roots on which the lovers fed begin to fail, and to announce the approach of winter: Amanda too, feels an incipient sensation, sweet, and till now unknown—the growing pledge of love. Sir Huon, urged by despair,
scales

scales these frowning crags, that seem to bid the approach of man defiance: long does he toil in vain among the dreary cliffs, till at last he perceives a sort of path which winds to a deep dell. Suddenly an old man of mild and venerable aspect stands before him; after expressions of mutual astonishment, and after sir Huon has briefly related to him his adventures, and refreshed himself with the fruits which hang clustering in the hermit's garden, Alonzo invites him to enjoy the peace, and to partake the plenty of his little cell: by a short and easy path, unknown to Huon, he leads his guest to the cavern, and returns with the grateful Rezia. The story of the hermit, who in early life had retired from the tumult of the world, excites a lively interest, and the description (stanzas XL to L) of the mode in which the old man and his adopted children pass their time, charms with its simplicity. The period of Rezia's parturition approaches: in fond imagination she clasps the baby to her bosom, and with 'prescient rapture' traces the father's features in the child: now she feels the loss of Fatma; but it is most unexpectedly supplied. On the quarrel of Oberon and Titania, the latter fled from her accustomed haunts, and retired to this solitary spot, where she fixed her abode of sorrow: long had she marked with the most anxious eye the loves of Huon and Amanda;

— * At dawn and evening late,
Watch'd them in lonely solitude unseen:
Each look, each word persuades the fairy queen,
That on their doom depends her interwoven fate;

with assistant sylphs, therefore, she resolves to sooth the parturient pangs of her on whom her only hope depends. Rezia's entrance into the fairy grotto; her lovely and mysterious vision; Titania's appearance; the raptures of the mother at pressing to her full breast the new-born boy; and the tender transports of sir Huon; are sketched with a pencil of exquisite and unequalled delicacy.

Canto ix. The ship which sir Huon was compelled to quit is driven by distress of weather into the port of Tunis: and the captain, desirous to profit by his hapless passenger, sells Fatma to the sultan's gardener, Ibrahim, as a slave. Old Sherafmin too is now landed at Marseilles: on the point of setting off for Paris, it chances that his better genius hints to him the idleness of his errand:

* This handful of goat's hair, these grinders too,
Heaven knows from whose old jaws—it will not do—

Should the knight, however, with the caliph's daughter by his side, and with horsemen proudly caparisoned, himself deliver the casquet to the emperor, the success of his enterprise might obtain credit. The squire resolves, therefore, to set off for Rome, and meet his master there: he arrives, but, alas, no news of Huon! all his laborious search is fruitless: in the habit of a pilgrim he wanders through the world for two whole years, and daily begs his bread—but, alas, no news of Huon! He arrives at Tunis half dead with hunger and fatigue; reposes himself by accident on a bank, near the door of the sultan's gardener: his faded features are recognized with tears of joy by Fatma: they vow never more to part; and the pilgrim, changing his staff and mantle for a jacket and a spade, works daily in the garden.

Meanwhile fir Huon sees with impatience that year after year rolls on in dull and tedious inaction: the old man dies. On that very night the fairy queen reads in the malignant stars some dreadful event; and while fir Huon and Amanda are bending over the dead body of the venerable hermit, Alonzo, and in awful silence are mingling their unutterable sorrows, she steals the smiling infant from it's bed, and delivers it to the care of her graces. From the roses which adorn her chaplet she then gives to each a bud: Vol. II, p. 108.

“ Observe my will, and every day and hour
Look at your blooming buds, and when ye view
Their roseate splendor chang'd to lily hue,
O then! once more love's reconciling pow'r
New-binds me to my lord—then speed your flight,
Greet with Amanda's son our nuptial rite—
Amanda's misery vanishes with mine.”—
Th' obedient nymphs their graceful necks incline,
And on a fleecy cloud are wafted from her sight.

The child is lost! the fairy grotto in which it lay is vanished from their sight, and the same dreary rocks which first received them from the ocean now stand before their view. The agonizing parents wander from each other, and searching among the cliffs for their lost child, Amanda is suddenly alarmed at a crew of sailors, whose galley is at anchor behind a reef of rocks. They come to water, and seeing ‘a female figure of angelic mien,’ rudely seize her as their prize. Roused by her shrieks, fir Huon arrives as they are dragging their prey down to the galley. After a most terrible defence the hero is overpowered, and bound, ‘arm, leg, and neck, and shoulders to a tree;’ meanwhile the crew bear off their helpless prey to Tunis, where she is to grace the haram of Almanfor, and rival his favorite, the beauteous Almanfatis.

Canto x. In the struggle Amanda's ring had dropped from her finger. Titania sees it glitter on the sand, and instantly recognizing it, clasps it with ardour to her bosom as the presage of her future felicity. She is unable to relieve the wretched Huon, but appears in a vision to the no less wretched Rezia, and comforts her with the assurance, that her husband and her child are yet alive. The fairy king takes pity on fir Huon; he orders an attendant spirit to loosen his cords, to bear him through the etherial regions, and on a bank of stones to lay him near the cottage door of Ibrahim. The astonished knight looks round, and scarcely is he recovered from his enchantment before he recognizes in a silver-headed man, just going forth to work, the honest features of his old friend Sherafmin. Each relates to the other his adventures, all of which unite to increase the confidence, both of the 'squire and his master, in the protection and friendship of Oberon. The impatient knight is on the point of buying a sword and steed, and departing in search of his beloved Amanda, when Fatma, eager and breathless, relates to him what she had just heard from a shrewd and trosty dame, Salome; namely, that as the sultan and his Almanfatis were walking on a terrace by the sea shore, they saw a vessel tossed by the fury of a storm, and, in spite of every exertion, sinking in the waves:

“ One, one alone, at that terrific hour,
The while resitless waves their prey devour,

Fav'rite of partial heaven, is seen to glide
 As in a car of triumph o'er the tide,
 And land, with robe scarce wet, as touch'd by vernal show'r."

The sultan, enamoured of her glowing charms, himself receives her on the shore, and orders apartments for her reception. Various emotions agitate sir Huon's breast at this wonderful relation. It must be Rezia! He resolves therefore to procure employment in the service of old Ibrahim, that, with the assistance of Fatma, he may possibly be enabled to see the stranger.

Canto XI. In the habit of a gardener our hero now wanders among the deepest bowers and the most sequestered walks, fondly hoping that the steps of Rezia may stray thither also. It chanced one evening that Almanfaris crossed his path: her indignation at the daring intruder soon changes to a softer feeling. Struck with his manly limbs and graceful form, the fair sultane's feels her warm bosom throb with love. The indifference of Almanfor to her charms, and her sense of wounded pride, that the rival stranger, Zoradine, should so suddenly have weaned from her his affections, are both forgotten; the graceful gardener, Hassan, is the idol of her soul, the sole object of her thoughts. Fatma, meanwhile, contrives a scheme, by which to inform her captive mistress, that sir Huon is a wanderer round the walls of the haram. The mystic love-knot falls accidentally into the hands of Almanfaris, and the lascivious syren, all on fire, appoints an evening interview. Sir Huon, with fond and trembling anticipation of Amanda's rapturous embrace, follows the footsteps of a female slave, and to his utter, inexpressible disappointment, too late perceives the error! His confusion is attributed by the wanton sultana to his native diffidence, and to the brilliancy and magnificence which surround him: she endeavours to relieve his anxiety and subdue his coyness by the most warm exciting glances, and the display, solicitously semi-shaded, of her angelic bosom. But all, all is vain! Softly reclining on a 'pillowy throne,' she takes her lute: r. 181.

' How does her rosy finger's subtle flight
 In sweet confusion sweep each soul-felt string!
 How as her arms, that wave in sportive swing,
 Displace her floating robe, how steal on sight
 Her beauties, seen thro' many an opening fold!
 And from her panting breast, whose Hebe mold
 Might madden wisdom, when th' internal fire
 Glow'd in the song, how curb the mad desire
 The goddess to adore, with ardor uncontrol'd?

' Sweet was the melody, its language plain:
 It spoke the sufferings of a female slave,
 Who long had brooded silent as the grave,
 O'er love that rack'd her soul with ceaseless pain:
 Th' all-pow'rful passion conquers fear and shame:
 Her speaking blushes to the youth proclaim
 Alike his triumph, and her thrilling smart—
 The lay was in a book—'twas in her heart!
 Sings no one as she sung, who feels not equal flame,

' An's

• Art's boastful pow'rs to conqu'ring nature yield:
Alone so lovely Venus' doves complain:
Her soul that breathes sensation on the strain,
Warm to his soul her kindling wish reveal'd.
Persuasive tones that clear and clearer spoke,
Sighs that enforc'd the sounds they sudden broke,
Cheeks deeper dy'd, the bosom's quickening play,
Each heightening each, th' omnipotence betray
Of passion's wild excess to thrilling frenzy woke.

• At last, in warm o'erpow'ring feelings tranc'd,
Th' unnotic'd lute falls silent from her hand:
But, at the instant that her arms expand,
Huon, whose eye with scornful virtue glanc'd,
Grasps with enthusiast haste the falling wire,
And thunders from the strings with prophet fire:
The hero on its bold responsive tone
Dares faith and feeling for another own,
And vows that heaven and earth can wake no new desire.

• Firm was his tone, his high heroic look
Glow'd like a god.—Th' enchantress, 'gainst her will,
Feels his superior force—tears wildly fill
Her eye indignant—pride and passion shook
Her soul with pangs, she cannot, wretch! disguise—
To veil her shame from sight away she flies:
Loath'd is the light—too close the spacious hall,
While with a look that might his soul appal,
She winks her slaves to bear the rebel from her eyes.

The whole of this description, from stanza XLV to LXVI, is richly and voluptuously wrought.

The twelfth and the concluding canto of this highly-finished epic opens with the conflicting feelings of Almanfaris. Inflamed almost to madness, her soul now feasts upon the thoughts of torturing the wretch to 'tenfold death;' but desire succeeds, and 'now, in her arms enchain'd, she dies upon his breast.' Love is triumphant; and one subtle plan the sultaneess tries, by advice of her favorite Nadina. One morning as our hero, the gardener Hassan, is gathering his flowers for the haram, he is met by a negro, who desires him to deck the sacred grotto,

• And adds, to spur him on, that in the wave
A fav'rite lady there will bathe without delay.

The unsuspecting Hassan obeys his orders—but who can describe his feelings when, on entering this lonely cave, he sees, reposing on a bed of yielding moss, Almanfaris herself, more beautiful than a houri, a light transparent veil alone, loosely floating around her! The fidelity of sir Huon is invincible;

• — He turns, he flies the place—
Yet flying, feels at once her warm embrace—
Feels round his body wreath'd her fond encircling arms.

At this critical moment, chance had conducted the sultan near the grotto; hearing the voice of Almanfaris, he enters; instantly the subtle siren cries aloud, "help! oh help me!" and with dishevelled hair and
fluttering

fluttering veil, seems struggling in defence of her assaulted innocence. The artifice succeeds: our hapless hero, weighed down with fetters, is cast into a dungeon, where his only consolation is the faith and unshaken love which he has evinced for Rezia. At the dead of night, Almanfarris, yet inflamed with love, enters his prison, offers to snatch him from the flames to which he is sentenced, and place him on the throne of the sultan, whose life she will instantly destroy: fir Huon resists her temptations, and the indignant dame leaves him to his doom. Meanwhile the story had reached the ears of Fatma: she deceives the guard and finds access to Rezia, whose joy, on hearing that fir Huon lives, is only exceeded by her anguish at the intelligence, that he is sentenced to immediate death. She flies to the sultan: with pale cheek and streaming eyes she implores of him the life of Hassan; and Almanfor, whose amorous importunities had been obstinately resisted, yields his conditional assent to her intreaty: Rezia spurns the disgraceful offer, and rather than her virtue, is content to lose her life. The frantic sultan dooms her to expire in the same flames with Huon: the pile is instantly prepared: the couple, found faithful to each other in the arms of death, are fastened to the stake: twelve negroes, with their blazing torches, stand in act to light the funeral fire: the signal is just given—when thunders shake the welkin, the flames are quenched, the cords consumed, and the magic horn is seen to swing round the neck of fir Huon. At this moment also Almanfor and Almanfarris appear with hostile troops, the one to defend his captive stranger, Zoradine, the other her graceful gardener Hassan: fir Huon gently sounds his horn, and the surrounding mob, from the sultan to the slave, join in one giddy caper. The car of Oberon receives the faithful pair, whose trials are now over, and through the air conducts them, together with Sherasmin and Fatma, to the palace of the fairy-monarch, who, with his queen Titania, now again harmoniously united, receives them with unbounded love: three elfin sisters present their long-lost babe, and the double nuptials are celebrated with celestial festivity.

Of the two main actions of this poem, each depending on the other, one is already accomplished, namely, the reconciliation of Oberon and Titania, and the other is on the point of completion: in their sleep, Huon and Rezia are conveyed by Oberon to the banks of the Seine: they awaken, and before them stand four milk-white steeds richly caparisoned, together with abundant robes and armour; they hasten to Paris, where a tournament invites the prowess of our hero. While Fatma is adorning her mistress with resplendent diamonds, Sherasmin, returning from his inquiries, brings the news to Huon, that the prize of victory is no less than his own honours and his own estates, which the implacable Charlemagne had publicly offered to the successful combatant. The valiant knight enters the open barriers and triumphs in the contest. With his lovely Rezia he salutes the emperor, lifts off the helmet from his head, and presents to him 'the beard and teeth of Asia's monarch.' The astonished Charles descends from his throne, embraces the youthful hero with the warmest gratulations, and welcomes to the court his beautiful bride, the daughter of the puissant caliph of Bagdad.

Such is the fable of this admirable epic: the analysis which we have given of it may, in some slight degree, perhaps, enable our readers to form a judgement of its various parts, and of the effect produced by their combination on the whole; it must have already been observed, that every

every digression contributes to forward one of the two main actions, and that each of these again is dependent on the other for completion. To expatiate on the particular beauties of *Oberon* would lead us infinitely too far: our object has been rather to excite, than gratify our readers, on which account we have resisted the temptation of enriching our article with copious extracts. We cannot conclude without expressing our thanks to Mr. S. for the pleasure we have received in the perusal of his elegant and harmonious translation.

A. N.

ART. XIII. *Comus, a Mask presented at Ludlow-Castle 1634, before the Earl of Bridgewater, then President of Wales: by John Milton. With Notes critical and explanatory by various Commentators, and with preliminary Illustrations; to which is added a Copy of the Mask from a Manuscript belonging to his Grace the Duke of Bridgewater: by Henry John Todd, M. A. Chaplain to the Right Hon. the Earl of Fife, and the Lord Viscount Kilmorey, and Minor Canon of Canterbury. 8vo. 199 pages. Canterbury, Bristow; London, Rivingtons. 1798.*

THE offended shade of Milton, surely, must have long since been appeased for the ignominious obscurity to which his smaller poems were consigned on their first appearance, and for the long period they lay neglected, by the anxiety and eagerness with which they have been since rescued from oblivion, and the fond and flattering solicitude with which their various beauties have been repeatedly displayed. Overwhelmed in a political eruption, and long remaining buried, they have been regarded since their recovery, almost with the same curious and admiring eye, that we survey the subterranean treasures of Herculaneum and Pompeii; not, however, like many of those sepulchred relics, are these poems perishable; they crumble not at the touch of examination; their beauties fade not on exposure to the light and air of day.

'This edition of *Comus*,' it is observed by Mr. Todd in his preface, p. i. 'originated in an humble opinion, that several materials relating to the Mask, with which I have been favoured, might render it acceptable to the public.'

'Without this previous declaration of my motive to the undertaking, it might be deemed a high presumption in me to publish *Comus* with illustrations, after the edition so well executed by the late Dr. Newton, and after the minute attention bestowed upon it by the late Mr. Warton, in his two admirable editions of Milton's smaller poems.'

It is incumbent on us to state what new matter the present edition contains. In Mr. Warton's account of Ludlow Castle, after having stated, that some idea of this venerable and magnificent fabric, in which *Comus* was played with great splendour, at a period when masks were the most fashionable entertainment of our nobility, will probably gratify those who read Milton with that curiosity which results from taste and imagination; he declines entering into the more obscure and early annals of the castle, and contents himself with exhibiting the state in which it might be supposed to subsist when the drama was performed. This desideratum, if such it be considered,

is elaborately supplied by the present editor, who trusts, ' that the methodical account of an edifice, more particularly ennobled by the representation of Comus within its walls, may not be improper *nor* [or] uninteresting.' Various authors are laid under contribution to furnish materials for this antiquarian memoir, which in all probability is extremely accurate, and in that case curious.

In order to give every information relative to the persons, as well as to the place, more peculiarly connected with the mask, Mr. T. has drawn up a copious account of John, earl of Bridgewater, and his family; namely John, lord viscount Brackley, the third but eldest surviving son, who performed the part of the *elder brother* in Comus, and succeeded to the earldom of Bridgewater: the honourable Thomas Egerton, who performed that of the *second brother*; and lady Alice Egerton, who acted the part of the lady in Comus, and could not at that time have been more than thirteen years old. In the account of the earl of Bridgewater, Mr. T. has rectified a trifling chronological error, into which Warton and Collins have both fallen: they state, that his lordship was promoted to the presidentship of Wales on the 12th of May, 1633, ' and have referred to Rymer's *Fœdæra*, vol. xix, p. 449, where indeed his *instructions* appear to have been then signed.' Mr. T., however, has extracted from a ms. folio book of rules and orders of the lords president of Ludlow Castle, and the state papers belonging to the government of the marches of Wales, (beginning the 15th of September, 1586, and ending the 24th of July, 9th Carol. 1, in the possession of Mr. Dovaston of the Nursery, near Oswestry), an original letter, which fixes the date of the earl's promotion in the year 1631; it is addressed by the king himself to the right hon. the earl of Bridgewater, appointing him lord president: and is " given at our court at Greenwich, the 26th day of June, in the seventh year of our reign, 1631." The earl, however, did not immediately enter upon his official residence at Ludlow Castle.

Through the civility of friends, the present editor has been enabled to add to Mr. Warton's memoir of Henry Lawes, who performed the part of the *spirit* in Comus, and who set the songs to music, much information relative both to the music and the composer. ' Mr. Warton,' says our editor, p. 45, ' has not noticed that division of the lyrical epilogue into *two* compositions, which both the historians of music [Dr. Burney and sir John Hawkins] have represented. These compositions were originally unconnected; for the drama appears to have opened with the former, beginning "*From the Heavens*" instead of "*To the Ocean*," as it closed with the latter, "*Now my task is smoothly done*." Having been informed by the reverend Francis Henry Egerton, that Dr. Philip Hayes was in possession of the music of Comus in Lawes's own hand writing, I wrote to the doctor, and was favoured with an answer, dated Feb. 8, 1797, from which I extract the following account, relating to this original manuscript:

" Henry Lawes has written before the songs in Comus, *The 5 Songs following were sett for a Mask* presented at Ludlo Castle, before the earle of Bridgewater, lord President of the Marches. October 1634.

" 1st Song. *From the Heavens now I fly* [which ends]
Where many a Cherub softly reposes.

" 2^d. *Sweet*

- " 2d. Sweet Eccho.
 " 3d. Sabrina fayre.
 " 4th. } Back Shepherds Back.
 " 2d part. } Noble Lord and Lady bright.
 " 5th Now my taske is smoothly done,
 I can flye, or I can run.

" No such song appears, as *To the Ocean now I fly*. I fear none of the intermediate INSTRUMENTAL STRAINS are recoverable. I have none of them in the manuscript before me." This is a remarkable difference from the preceding accounts of the music; but, remarkable as it is, it perfectly agrees with the Ashridge manuscript of the mask."

We cordially unite with Mr. T., in regretting that the death of Dr. Philip Hayes prevented the fulfilment of his promise, to have enriched the present editor with observations, as well on the music of Comus, as on the general merit of Lawes.

For the greater part of what is new in the dissertation on the "origin of Comus," our author is indebted to Mr. Hole, whose learned, ingenious, and elegant "remarks on the Arabian Night's Entertainments" we noticed in a former volume. Various are the sources to which Milton has been supposed to owe obligations for his Comus; Dr. Johnson says, in his life of the poets, that the fiction is derived from Homer's Circe: he may probably be right, and so may Mr. Warton, in his conception, that the general cast and colouring of the piece are transferred from Fletcher's Arcadian comedy, the Faithful Shepherdess. Mr. Reed's is a very probable conjecture, that in "the Old Wives Tale, a pleasant conceited comedie, plaied by the queenes majesties players, written by George Peele," is to be found the rude outline, from which Milton seems partly to have sketched the plan of his fable. An anonymous annotator on Johnson's lives of the poets, suggests, that Milton's fable was "taken from the Comus of ERYCIUS PUTEANUS, in which, under the fiction of a dream, the characters of Comus and his attendants are delineated, and the delights of sensualists exposed and reprobated." This observation, says Mr. T., has been confirmed in Mr. Hole's remarks on the Arabian Night's Entertainments, by various extracts from Puteanus's work. Several passages are selected from Mr. Hole's publication: we shall take the liberty of offering the following short one to our readers:

Introduc. p. 57. "Milton certainly read this performance with such attention, as led, perhaps imperceptibly, to imitation. His Comus

' Offers to every weary traveller
 His orient liquor in a chrystal glass,

In Puteanus, one of his attendants discharges that office. Hic [in limine] adolescens cum amphorâ et cyatho stabat et intransibibus propinabat vinum. [p. 35. ed. 1611.] From the following passage Milton seems to have derived his idea of the mode, in which he first introduces the voluptuous enchanter. Interea Comus, luxu lasciviâque stipatus, ingreditur: et quid attinet pumpam explicare? Horæ suavissimos Veris odores, omnemque florum perpuram spargebant. Amorem Gratia, Delicia, Lepores, ceteraque Hilaritatis illices sequebantur;

bantur: Voluptatem Rifus, Iocusque. Cum Saturitate soror Ebrietas erat, crine fluxo, rubentis Auroræ vultu: manu thyrsum quatibat; ac breviter, totum Bacchum expresserat. [p. 30. ed. supr.] These figurative personages recall to our minds

‘ Meanwhile welcome Joy and Feast,
Midnight Shout and Revelry,
Tipfy Dance and Jollity.’

In the same speech our Poet evidently has in view a lively Anacreontic ode, which the Comus of Puteanus likewise addresses to his dissipated votaries.” Hole’s Remarks, &c. pp. 233, 234.

‘ The lines, which Mr. Hole has extracted from this ode, are given as “ resemblances which can hardly be considered accidental;” and he adds, “ whoever chooses to compare farther the poetical address of Comus in each author, will find a similar spirit and congeniality of thought, though the Dutch muse in point of chastity is very inferior to the British.” Remarks, &c. p. 236.’

Mr. T. has added a few other resemblances from a comparison which himself has made.

We have now stated all the new matter which is inserted in the volume before us, excepting, first, the notes of the editor, and secondly, an appendix containing the Ashridge manuscript. The notes of Mr. T. are seldom or never open to objection, or the subject of criticism, for they consist chiefly of parallel passages from various authors; the editor, indeed, has stated in his preface, that it has been ‘ his endeavour, by the variety of illustrations, to gratify those, who do not unreasonably despise verbal criticism; who can read with pleasure the forgotten and unjustly neglected passages of our elder poets; who may be pleased to compare several coincidences of thought and expression in “ Fancy’s sweetest children:” Spenser, Shakspeare, and Milton; and who may love to see Milton’s favourite words adduced both from his poetry and prose.’ A great abundance of notes also are collected from other quarters: the two Wartons, Warburton, Thyer, Hoadley, Steevens, Dunster, Monboddo, &c.

By permission of his grace, Mr. T. has gratified the public with a complete copy of Comus, taken from a manuscript belonging to the duke of Bridgewater’s library at Ashridge.

P. 165. ‘ It is a thin quarto bound in vellum, and gilt; and is numbered, P. i. 12. It consists of twenty leaves, which are not paged. The leaves are ruled, as the distinction of the speakers also is written, with red ink. It may, possibly, be one of the many copies written, before the Mask was published, by Henry Lawes, who, on his editing it in 1637, complained in his dedication to lord Brackley, that “ *the often copying it had tired his pen* :” or, at least, it may be a transcript of his copy. The professional alteration,

“ *And bould a counterpoint to all heay’n’s harmonies,*”

made by Lawes, in setting to music the song “ Sweet Echo,” and observed by Mr. Warton, occurs also in this manuscript.

‘ At the bottom of the title-page to this manuscript the second earl of Bridgewater, who had performed the part of the elder brother, has written “ *Author Is: Milton.*” This, in my opinion, may be considered as no slight testimony, that the manuscript presents the
original

original form of this drama. The Mask was acted in 1634, and was first published by Lawes in 1637, at which time it certainly had been corrected, although it was not then *openly* acknowledged, by its author. The alterations and additions, therefore, which the printed poem exhibits, might not have been made till long after the representation; perhaps, not till Lawes had expressed his determination to publish it. The coincidence of Lawes's original music with certain peculiarities in this manuscript, which I have already stated in the *Account of Henry Lawes*, may also favour this supposition.

Several various readings in this manuscript agree with Milton's original readings in the Cambridge manuscript, and several are peculiar to itself. I have printed these various readings in italics, and I have noted its peculiarities, some of which are evidently the literal errors of the transcriber; in which cases, I have ventured to substitute the right word, and to give the manuscript reading at the bottom of the page. By a few slight but necessary emendations the unintentional mistakes of the transcriber's "tired pen" are rectified, while the unquestionable antiquity of the manuscript is carefully preserved. EDITOR.

The ample account which we have given of the contents of this volume, we question not has excited a curiosity in our readers to peruse it: the present is certainly the most complete edition of *Comus* which has ever appeared. But to those who are satisfied with the annotations of Newton and of Warton; who already know as much of Lawes, of Ludlow Castle, and the Bridgewater family as they wish to do; and who feel no inclination to see the copy of an original ms. of *Comus*; to such, the present edition will appear to be unnecessary, and will certainly be uninteresting.

ART. XIV. *False and True, a Play in three Acts, now performing at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket.* 8vo. 57 pages. Bell. 1798.

THIS play is not without some vivacity and humour. Its merit has been attested by the plaudits of the gallery. L. L.

NOVELS.

ART. XV. *Ianthé, or the Flower of Caernarvon, a Novel.* By Emily Clark, grand-daughter of the late colonel Frederick, son of Theodore, king of Corsica. 2 vols. 12mo. About 500 pages. Price 8s. sewed. Hookham and Co. 1798.

THE introduction to these little volumes, added to our sympathy with the descendant of the unfortunate family of Theodore king of Corsica, disarms the severity of criticism.

Introduction, p. vi. 'I shall relate the truth,' says our young author, 'and when I declare that I have been impelled to exercise the talents, which nature has given me, to aid me in the support of myself, my sisters, and a mother, to whose cultivation they are so much indebted, there is little more to add concerning my work and its author.'

To

To write a good novel is a more arduous task than a person might be led to suppose from the numerous candidates for fame in this species of composition. The youth, the inexperience, the circumstances of Miss Clark, with her motives for taking up the pen, demand a candid judgment: the story she has made choice of is somewhat wild, romantic, and ill-connected, yet the sentiments throughout give proof of an amiable, uncorrupted mind: the respectable list of subscribers, whose names are affixed to the volumes, we sincerely hope will afford more substantial benefit to the writer, than could be conferred by the empty breath of fame.

ART. XVI. *The Step Mother: a domestic Tale, from real Life.* 2 vols. 12mo. About 500 pages. Price , sewed. Longman. 1798.

A NOVEL of the second class, possessing considerable merit, which cannot fail, if perused with attention, to interest and improve the reader.

ART. XVII. *Refalind de Tracy. A Novel.* By Eliz. Soph. Tomlins, author of the *Victim of Fancy*, &c. in 3 vols. 12mo. About 500 pages. Price , sewed. Dilly. 1798.

A NOVEL, the title of which may make a respectable appearance in the catalogue of a circulating library, and charm those readers who require for their satisfaction only 'tales of love and maids forsaken.'

ART. XVIII. *Sadaski; or the wandering Penitent.* By Tho. Bellamy. 2 vols. Small 8vo. 320 pages. Price , sewed. Sael. 1798.

A KIND of oriental allegorical tale, told in 'sounding words,' which cannot fail to afford a delectable entertainment to those, whose passion for the marvellous blinds them to the violation of all congruity and sober sense. Castles, palaces, forests, lakes, dens, caverns, spectres, visions, groans, shrieks, and murders, are here to be found in abundance.

A. G.

THEOLOGY.

ART. XIX. *Rome is Fallen! A Sermon; preached at the Visitation, held at Scarborough, June 5, 1798.* By Francis Wrangham. M.A. 4to. 40 pages. Price 2s. 6d. York, Wilson and Co. Lond. Dilly.

OF the occasional sermons, which have passed under our review, we can scarcely recollect one so justly entitled to our unqualified approbation, for its matter and composition, as the subject of our present notice. With an extensive and cultivated mind, Mr. W. discloses the feelings of a churchman in subordination to those of a christian; and, with a venial bias to the establishment of which he is a member, is unwilling to blend the work of God with that of man, or so to confound the churches of Christ and of England, as to regard them as individually the same, and fated to survive or perish together. While he discovers a warm abhorrence

rence of the enormities of our gallic neighbours, whom he seems to consider as hostile, not only to the modes, but to the essence and object of christian worship, he can distinguish a MASTER SPIRIT presiding over the turbid and perplexed scene; controlling or directing the outrage of the storm, with the malignity of human passions effecting his own beneficent purposes, and, from the irregular agitations of free-will, educing final good.

The sermon opens with some judicious observations on the nature and character of prophecy, and with the application of them to the Apocalypse of St. John; from the mysterious page of which the preacher has taken his text. "Babylon is fallen, is fallen; that great city, because she made all nations drink of the wine of the wrath of her fornication," (Rev. xiv. 8). The accomplishment of the remarkable prediction, contained in this passage, Mr. W. very obviously discovers in that event, which has lately been effected by the violence and injustice of France, the fall of the *spiritual Babylon* in Rome, and the subversion of the papal domination. Uninfluenced on this occasion by those feelings of worldly policy, of temporary, and partial, and delusive interest, which have induced even some of our prelates to an accommodation with the cause of the papacy, Mr. W. hails this predicted consummation with much heart-felt joy, and contemplates in it the just subject of congratulation to every follower of Christ. In this we most heartily concur with Mr. W.; and when we reflect on the corrupt and the sanguinary enormities of priestly Rome; on the dreadful mischiefs, which have resulted to mankind from this pseudo-christian church, the parent, in truth, of more depravity than paganism, and of more atheism than all the sophistry of infidels; we cannot but be in the highest degree astonished, when we observe it's overthrow lamented by any protestant christian. We shall cite what Mr. W. says on this part of his subject, as the passage is calculated to gratify our readers with it's sentiments and style.

P. 9.—Much, however, as they have generally differed, in expounding many of its enigmatical passages—upon the modern counterpart of that Babylon, whose crimes and punishment it so vividly delineates, they have still more generally agreed; and it requires at present but little either of ingenuity to discover, or of courage to assert, that the time for confirming this their concurrent interpretation is at last arrived: *ROME is fallen, is fallen, that great city, because she made all nations drink of the wine of the wrath of her fornication.* ROME—a name endeared by so many recollections and associations to the statesman and the soldier, to the admirer of arts and the man of letters—a name, which conjures up to our imagination the brightest visions of literary and of martial glory: Rome—which in her earlier days filled the world with her lustre, enlightening while she enslaved mankind; and which afterwards by her papal incantations could have called "millions of swords from their scabbards, to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult:" Rome—is fallen without a struggle; and who amongst us shall breathe a sigh of regret for her fate!

I shall

“ I shall not be charged, I trust, with ungenerously triumphing over an old man’s distresses—when I say, I rejoice to see the sovereign pontiff a fugative and a vagabond ; that I exult to behold Him, who once trod upon the necks of monarchs, crouching himself beneath the insolent foot of a ferocious and implacable republic. What protestant does not rejoice—to hear that those thunders at length are silent, which issued, during so long a period, from the gloomy recesses of the *Vatican*, to convulse Europe ; shaking the allegiance of subjects, and “ hurling princes from their thrones ! ” What lover of peace does not exult—to learn that those lightnings, which so often blasted the olive of Christendom, are quenched for ever ! Ought we, who should anxiously wish the prophecies fulfilled, to weep over their accomplishment ? Independently of this consideration, is the downfall of the papacy in itself an event to be deplored ? Would it have cost the intrepid Luther, the rigorous Calvin, nay,—the mild and gentle Melancthon, one tear—to be informed “ that the arrogance of the proud was ceased, and the haughtiness of the terrible laid low ?—They eat the fat, and they clothed them with the wool, they killed them that were fed : but they fed not the flock. The diseased did they not strengthen, neither did they heal that which was sick, neither did they bind up that which was broken, neither did they bring again that which was driven away, neither did they seek that which was lost, but with force and with cruelty did they rule them. And they were scattered, because there was no shepherd—Therefore—thus saith the Lord God, Behold, I am against the shepherds : and I will require my flock at their hand, and I will cause them to cease from feeding the flock ; neither shall the shepherds feed themselves any more ; for I will deliver my flock from their mouth, that they may not be meat for them.”

After a cursory glance at some of the more pernicious tenets of the church of Rome, for the purpose of justifying his exultation on it’s fall, the preacher proceeds to remark, in a very animated strain, on the rapacity and ambition of the Vatican ; and on that nefarious plan of power, which principally contributed to rear the loftiness of that spiritual edifice. Mr. W.’s facts have unquestionably been stated before, for, obtruded on every eye, they have resounded from many a tongue ; but we should be at a loss to suggest a place, in which they could be found so strikingly grouped, and dressed as in the following very eloquent passage :

P. 15.—“ When successive encroachments had glutted the coffers, and almost satiated the avarice of the roman bishop, and his tiara was now studded with gems forced or purloined from the other crowns of Europe, it’s attainment quickly became an object of criminal pursuit and competition : *the fine linen and purple, and silk and scarlet* of this mystic Babylon, proved temptations too powerful for the relaxed austerity of ecclesiastical virtue. Acquired by intrigue, it was worn (as might naturally be expected) with iniquity : the plots of the Conclave were worthy harbingers to the practices of the pontificate. Stung by the inordinate lust of wealth and power—this apostolical Cæsar declined no expedient,
shrunk

Strunk from no enormity, which contributed to improve the once-humble patrimony of St. Peter: for this, the pagan rites of apotheosis were succeeded by the kindred mummary of canonization: for this, saints took possession of the temples (and, with them, of the worship and offerings) formerly dedicated to heathen deities. The cries of torture, and the shouts of triumphant persecution, rose from all quarters in mingled horror; and wheels and stakes and scaffolds every where obtruded themselves, with painful prominence, upon the eye of sensibility and reflection. The whole body of the clergy were formed into one immense engine of spiritual domination; sequestered from the sigh and the smile of social sympathy, unsoftened and uncontrolled by the tenderness on the interests of domestic life, by prejudices and by habits insulated as it were from their species (if not in some degree opposed to them) and rigid for the most part in unprofitable indolence, the secular and the regular priest alike ceased to be the citizen and the man: the people were industriously kept in what was called "a wholesome darkness;" that is, in a total ignorance of their legitimate rights and duties. Sanctuaries were thrown open for assassins, and licences issued to prostitutes; and when neither licences nor sanctuaries could enable them to elude the just severity of conscience, even from that pursuer they found a sure refuge—in the unbounded asylum of indiscriminating and universal absolution. Thus did Rome "make all nations drink of the wine of the wrath of her fornication:" Lukewarm in what regarded the propagation of genuine religion—the zeal of her sacred consistory was only rendered fervent by the dangerous heresy of such as said, that *they be not gods that are made with hands—for by this craft they had their wealth; and they feared lest that magnificence should be destroyed, which all Europe and the world worshipped.* In a word—the most scandalous corruption, the most virulent intolerance, and the most abandoned nepotism characterized this heaven-ordained impeccable administration, this thrice-holy hierarchy—composed of cardinal-bishops, cardinal-deacons, and cardinal-priests. But it is done—there has been a great earthquake, such as was not since men were upon the earth, so mighty an earthquake and so great—and the cities of the nations have fallen: and great Babylon has come in remembrance before God, to give unto her the cup of the wine of the fierceness of his wrath.

In the application of the subject to the immediate purpose of the meeting, before which he preached, Mr. W. evinces considerable delicacy and management. Warm and bold, with christian zeal, he addresses his clerical brethren, on the subject of their duties and their errors, with christian humility; and magnifying his office, as the immediate herald of the Gospel, he very properly deprecates the idea of any arrogated superiority for himself. In these times, when "the Almighty hath arisen to shake terribly the earth," Mr. W. justly observes, the conduct of the clergy is of augmented importance, and a demand for redoubled vigilance in the discharge of their awful ministry is made on them with irresistible force, by the terrors which have arrayed themselves against us. The paragraph, in which the preacher insists on the

the duties of the sacerdotal office, is in too high a class of merit to be withheld from our readers.

P. 22.—‘As an additional incentive to activity—let us consider that the Gospel, even in better days than these, is a most awful message: foretold by a long succession of prophets; proclaimed upon its arrival, and attended in its consummation, by angels; contained in a history—compiled from indubitable evidence, and recorded by the pen of inspiration; attested during its progress by the Holy Spirit, and sealed with the seal of martyrdom—“the issue of all these magnificent preparations, as far as it may depend on human ministration, ultimately rests upon us.” And, as the end of our appointment is the highest, so are the means which it employs the most honourable and praise-worthy. Simplicity of life and sincerity of purpose, talent and the sedulous cultivation of talent, are all necessary to the discharge of our many and arduous functions. *Ours* is indeed a heavy responsibility; a responsibility, poorly satisfied by the brief labours (shall I call them *labours*?) of a periodical sabbath industry; the rapid mechanical recital of a liturgy from the reading-desk, and the delivery (equally rapid and mechanical) of a flimsy piece of morality, or perhaps a dry metaphysical disquisition, from the pulpit.—*Ours* is to preach the Gospel to the poor, to bind up the broken-hearted, not so much to rejoice with those that rejoice, as to weep with those who weep; to be partakers of the *tribulations* of the Gospel; to carry the triumphant banners of the cross into the chilling penury and desolation of a cottage; *ours* to bear the terrors of the Lord to rough, sullen, and boisterous offenders; to snatch the moment of pain or danger to persuade men; *ours* to open the well-spring of comfort to eager anxious penitents, trembling between the two stages of existence in time and in eternity; to intercept despair, and to repress presumption; to support the dying, and to warn the living; *ours* in this work to face the inclemency of the seasons, to brave the contagion of pestilential maladies in prisons and lazarettouses; *ours* to perform all this to the poor and friendless, and by the unremitting exertions of body and mind, soul and spirit, through the might of Christ, to abate the bitterness of the curse by which “sin came into the world, and death by sin.” Still more, *ours* it is to discharge such duty in the midst of obscurity and retirement, where no observation of the great follows, no earthly hope encourages, no human applause cheers or *debases* our labours. Our only witness God and our conscience, and our only return—the prayers of those we comfort and serve, and the expectation of that recompence which awaits us at the resurrection of the just.—With the common feelings of our nature, we cannot be insensible to this alarming view of our complicated and great obligations; those obligations too, whatever interruption they may cause to our indolence or to our amusements, are what we have solemnly and voluntarily undertaken: the vows of God are upon us—and as, on the one side, we should tremble for the fulfilment of that fearful denunciation—“If thou dost not speak to warn the wicked from his way, that wicked man shall die in his iniquity, but his blood will I require at *thine* hand;” so, on the other,

other, we ought to thirst for the completion of that animating promise—"they that turn many to righteousness, shall shine as the stars, for ever and ever."

Having suggested to his brethren, and warned them against some of their more prominent errors, which he conceives to be lukewarmness, and secularity, or a too eager pursuit of this world's good, Mr. W., with much propriety and ability, cautions them against the extremes of SECLUSION, which would deprive them of the means of accomplishing the full object of their mission; and of EXCESSIVE ZEAL, which would light again the fires of persecution, and erect, as the preacher happily expresses it, 'an altar to faith, on the ruins of the temple of charity.'

In the conclusion of his sermon, Mr. W. just touches on the question, which has lately been agitated respecting the arming of the clergy, in a contest, 'which *is at last* (as Mr. W. says) become a contest, not only for our national constitution, but, as it should seem, for the interests of christianity and of mankind.' On this question, the preacher, very properly in our opinion, decides with his ecclesiastical superiours, the bishops, against the blending of such irreconcilable professions as those of soldier and priest; and determines, that the only violence, which can become a christian minister, is the 'pious violence of prayer.' The opprobrious spectacle of a bishop in the bloody trappings of war would, as we conceive, do more mischief to his particular church, and to christianity itself, than would be sufficient to outweigh all the good which could result to the cause from the force of twenty thousand such arms. To our clergy may be addressed the words of the prophet to his countrymen; "In rest (from war and worldly contention) shall ye be saved: in quietness and confidence shall be your strength." If they must ultimately fall, they cannot fall any where with so much consistency, so much dignity, so strong an assurance of acceptance with their master, as at the altar, in their robes of white, and with the Gospel of peace and love in their hands.

The ample notes, with which this sermon is illustrated, contain matter drawn from a wide circumference of knowledge, and bespeak the writer to be not only deeply conversant with the divines of the present and of former times, but also to be quite at home in the various departments of ancient and modern literature. In these notes, Mr. W. has been induced, by the appositeness of the subject, to favour us with an extract, from an unpublished production of his own muse, "on the Destruction of Babylon," which was written for the Seaton prize, in the year 1795. This extract gives us a favourable impression of Mr. W.'s poetical talents: and if the remaining parts of the composition be of equal merit, we should either express our surprise at the award of the academical judges, which could refuse it the prize; or offer our congratulations to the university, which could produce a specimen of poetry, that was decidedly superiour to it.

Before we take leave of this sermon and its attendant notes, we cannot dissemble our satisfaction on finding in them an explicit disavowal, on the part of their author, of "the Pursuits of Literature,

ature, in consequence of that composition's having been publicly ascribed to him. With our opinion of the libel in question, it would have been painful to us to be compelled to recognize it's writer in Mr. W., whose present publication has prepossessed us in his favour, as a scholar and a divine, an eloquent preacher and a christian patriot.

W. B.

ART. XX. *The Divine Government a Ground of Rejoicing at all Times; and the Tears of England, or a Word in Season to the People; Two Sermons, preached in Substance at Debenham, in Suffolk, the Former on Tuesday, December 19, 1797, being the Day set apart for a general Thanksgiving for naval Victories obtained in the present War; and the Latter on Wednesday, March 7, 1798, being the Day appointed for a general Fast.* By W. Hurn, Vicar of Debenham. 8vo. 80 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Ipswich, Shave; London, Chapman. 1798.

A PLAIN and pious effort to forward individual and national reformation.

ART. XXI. *Cautions against Innovation in Matters of Religion. A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary Le Bow, London; on Sunday, Feb. 25, 1798.* By the Rev. William Van-Mildert, M. A. Rector of St. Mary le Bow, London. 8vo. 21 pages. Price 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.

No innovation! a protest against all improvement.

ART. XXII. *A Picture of Christian Philosophy; or, a theological, philosophical, and practical Illustration of the Character of Jesus: in which the genuine christian Temper is contrasted with the benevolent System maintained by Mr. Godwin and other Philosophers, and with the View of Christianity, by William Wilberforce, Esq. With Strictures on various Topics of general Interest and Importance.* By Robert Fellowes, A. B. Oxon. 8vo. 82 p. Warwick, Sharpe; London, White. 1798.

THIS author states what he conceives to be the difference between christian benevolence and the benevolence of Mr. Godwin's system, and between the christian doctrine and morals, and the doctrine and morals of Mr. Wilberforce. With whatever force his readers may think he urges his arguments, few will dispute the benevolence and liberality of his spirit.

D. M. R.

POLITICS. POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. XXIII. *State of Ireland.* By Arthur O'Connor. 8vo. About 80 pages. No Printer or Bookseller's Name.

WE learn from the dedication 'to those who were electors of the county of Antrim,' that this pamphlet was written in the beginning of the present year. The work itself is an address to the 'irish nation,' and is stated to contain 'an account of those WRONGS they have to redress, and of those RIGHTS they have to regain, before their liberties can be secured.'

The

The author begins by complaining, that the state of *faction* has been hitherto mistaken for the state of the *country*, but that the people have at length 'learnt with what undeviating uniformity their dearest interests have been sold.' Although he cannot boast, that he is gifted with that commanding eloquence, which can fortify irresolute virtue, and appal the daring effrontery of inveterate guilt; yet he is capable of perseverance, and is the implacable enemy of the whole system under which venality, corruption, and tyranny, have dared to trample on the liberties of his country; 'whose emoluments are peculation, and what are called honours a disgrace.'

'Appearances,' says he, p. 2, 'are so strong against this system—they carry with them such evident marks that the foulest treason has been practised against the people of Ireland—that, were I to content myself with the mention of general abstract facts, I know not how the most shameless prostitution could deny the necessity of instantaneous reformation. If internal tranquillity, and a willing obedience to the laws, be the best criterion to judge of the justice or wisdom with which they have been made, or of the moderation with which they have been administered, in what period of our history, in what quarter of our country, shall the government and legislature of Ireland find their justification? If the condition of a people be the best criterion to judge of the excellence of their practical government, how shall the people of Ireland, worse housed, worse clad, and worse fed, than the subjects of the most inveterate despotism in Europe, divest themselves from thinking that they live under one of the worst practical governments in the world? If the respect in which a nation is held abroad be the best criterion to judge of the ability or integrity with which its affairs have been conducted at home, how shall the people of Ireland, without rank, or without a name among nations, force themselves to believe that their affairs have been conducted with either ability or integrity? Is it by comparing the rank which this beauteous island holds with the rank held by the swamps of Holland, the mountains of Switzerland, the diminutiveness of Geneva or Genoa, or the sterility of Portugal, suffering under the double lash of civil and religious despotism, that the people of Ireland should be satisfied with the fidelity of their government, or with the purity of their representatives? Shall beggary and famine stalk through your country, so blest with a temperate climate and a fertile soil, without the strongest suspicion that the people have not been done justice? Shall a brave, healthy, intelligent, generous people, be doomed to the most squalid misery at home, and be famed for enterprise, activity and industry in every country but their own, without the strongest suspicion that they have been made a prey to peculation, injustice, and oppression? Shall a country be endowed by Providence with the advantages of coasting carriage, of navigable rivers, and with the most convenient form, and yet its industry be at so low an ebb, that the principal manufactures for home consumption shall be furnished by a neighbouring nation, without the strongest suspicion that her industry has been sold? Shall a country be gifted by the hand of nature with the advantages of insular situation—be indented with numerous safe and commodious harbours, and be most

advantageously placed on the globe between the old and the new world—and yet possess such an inconsiderable foreign trade, as that no ships scarcely, but those of one nation, shall enter her ports, and those the ships of that nation which appoints her government and distributes her patronage—without the strongest suspicion of perfidy in her government, and treason in her legislature?

* The contrast between the condition of our country and the natural advantages with which it has been gifted, forms a paradox which calls aloud for inquiry. I will not waste time in proving that we are immersed in a state of poverty and wretchedness which ill accords with the natural advantages of our country. He must be blind who does not see it; he must be deaf who has not heard our complaints; and there are none but those who have been sharers in the plunder that have not felt for our distress. I know there are traitors amongst us, who say that our misery is caused by our indolence, and that idleness is an innate vice in the people of Ireland. If so, why do they come from the most remote quarters of the country to the vicinage of the towns, to seek for employment? Why do they leave their habitations, their families, and their country, in such numbers, every year, to seek for employment in England and in Newfoundland? If idleness be an innate vice in us and in our soil, how has it happened that we have surpassed the people of England in the only manufacture in which our industry has been done justice? Or, if we are this indolent people, why was it necessary for a legislature of Ireland to write its own indelible infamy in the black character of that law by which it destroyed the woollen manufacture in Ireland in order to promote it in Great-Britain? But these are the calumnies of men enriched by emoluments which their prostitution, not their abilities, has gathered—of men who are bribed to betray the people they vilify—of men who seek to lay the effects of their own treason at the door of the nation they have sold, oppressed, and ruined. It is time to unmask them, and to prove to the world, that the want of industry so foully charged on the people of Ireland originates in the plunder and poverty of their country, and that this plunder and poverty originate in a system of corruption and usurpation which those who have destroyed every vestige of our liberties call glorious and happy.

Mr. O'Connor next enters on an inquiry respecting 'the sacred funds which pay the wages of industry;' and considers a *foreign government*, and a *venal legislature*, as productive of the worst of evils. The corn, cattle, butter, leather, and yarn of Ireland, are all exported, according to him, without any advantage in return, being calculated merely to swell the funds for the employment of the people of England, 'whilst the forsaken, plundered people of Ireland are left to languish in famine and misery, for want of that wealth, in the shape of wages, which the labour of their hands and the sweat of their brow had originally produced—exhaling the sap and moisture of the irish soil to fertilize Great-Britain.'

After this, he complains of the embarrassments to which the commerce of Ireland is liable, her markets being open to every species of british manufacture, while those of Great-Britain are shut against
all

all the products of Ireland, with only one solitary exception*. The fees, exactions, and arbitrary proceedings of the revenue clerks are also animated on with considerable severity. The fisheries are represented as so fettered, that three of the commissioners of the revenue, supposed here to be gifted not only with 'omnipotence,' but 'omniscience,' are annually to inform the fishermen of Ireland of the exact spot where the fish are to be found!

After exclaiming 'O ill-fated country! where the crime of wasting the public money merges into insignificance, compared with the mischief it's expenditure creates!' he considers the enormous drain which is extorted from industry, under the head of *religious instruction*, as the fifth source of the calamities of Ireland. The expense at which the laws are administered is another grievance; as is also that of education; and it would appear from his statement, that the greater part of the lands, vested in trustees for this purpose, have been grossly misapplied.

By way of a remedy for all these and many more evils, the author recommends 'catholic emancipation, and a restoration of popular representation,' as the only efficient expedients. He defends the 'united people of Ireland,' for having entered into 'a glorious conspiracy to destroy religious bigotry and national thralldom.' He asserts, that 'the minister and his accomplices' have overturned the monarchy in that country; he quotes lord Camden to prove, that king, lords, and commons, may become tyrants; and that it is as lawful to resist the despotism of *many as one*. He also observes in the language of Selden, who, on being asked by what statute resistance to tyranny could be justified, replied, "it was to be justified by the custom of England, which is part of the law of the land;" and that "whenever oppression begins, resistance becomes lawful and right."

Mr. O'C. concludes, by exhorting his countrymen to restrain the transports of national fury, and 'to put down their oppressors, without disgracing themselves.'

We forbear to make any observations on this publication, which seems to have been intended as a species of *manifesto*, rather than a political pamphlet.

ART. XXIV. *Report from the Committee of Secrecy, of the House of Commons in Ireland, as reported by the Right Honourable Lord Viscount Castlereagh, August 21, 1798.* 8vo. 267 pages. Price 4s. Debrett. 1798.

THE report of this committee, while it carefully avoids the mention of any grievances, affords a general history of the proceedings of the insurgents. It states, that the society of united irishmen was established in the year 1791; that Theobald Wolfe Tone was the founder of it: and that the intention from the very commencement 'was to separate Ireland from Great Britain, and to subvert the established constitution.'

The public mind is said to have been lately prepared, by the circulation of the most seditious pamphlets, 'particularly the works of Thomas

* This we apprehend to be linen.

Paine; the *test* of the society was altered so as to admit republicans, as well as reformers, to act in concert; and in order to counteract the armed associations of yeomanry, established in October, 1796, the leaders began to organize the members into military bodies.

In the month of April, 1797, their numbers in the province of Ulster alone were supposed to amount to nearly one hundred thousand men, and they possessed muskets, pikes, and even some cannon. With a view of diminishing the resources of the state, instructions were given to the people to abstain from the consumption of exciseable articles, and endeavours were made to depreciate the value of government securities, quit rents, bank notes, &c.

In 1798, the party despairing of carrying their plans into execution through the medium of a democratic reform, avowedly directed their efforts to revolution, and in the summer of that year resolved to accept of the assistance of the french. In consequence of this determination, an agent was dispatched to the directory to acquaint them with it: this agent 'appears to your committee, from various channels of information to have been the late lord Edward Fitzgerald, who, accompanied by Mr. Arthur O'Connor, proceeded by Hamburgh to Switzerland, and had an interview near the french frontier with general Hoche.'

A confidential person was also sent over from France, in order to form a correct idea of the state of Ireland.

P. 24.—' On consideration of the whole of the evidence, your committee are of opinion,

' That the rebellion originated in a system, framed not with a view of obtaining either catholic emancipation, or any reform compatible with the existence of the constitution, but for the purpose of subverting the government, separating Ireland from Great Britain, and forming a democratic republic, founded on the destruction of all church establishment, the abolition of ranks, and the confiscation of property.

' That the means resorted to for the attainment of these designs, was [*scilicet*] a secret systematized combination, fitted to attract the multitude, by being adapted to vulgar prejudices and vicious passions, and artfully linked and connected together with a view of forming the mass of the lower ranks into a revolutionary force, acting in concert, and moving in one body, at the impulse, and under the direction of their leaders.

' That for the farther accomplishment of their object, the leaders of the conspiracy entered into a negotiation, and finally concluded an alliance with the french directory, by which it was stipulated, that an adequate force should be sent for the invasion of this country, as subsidiary to the preparations that were making for a general insurrection.

' That in pursuance of this design, measures were adopted by the chiefs of the conspiracy, for giving to their societies a military form; and that for arming their adherents, they had recourse partly to the fabrication of pikes, and partly to the plundering of the loyal inhabitants of their arms.

' That from the vigorous and summary expedients resorted to by government, and the consequent exertions of the military, the leaders found themselves reduced to the alternative of immediate insurrection, or of being deprived of the means on which they relied for effecting their purpose; and that to this cause is exclusively to be attributed that premature and desperate effort, the rashness of which has so evidently facilitated its suppression.

' That

• That the vigilance of the executive government, in detecting and arresting many of the principal conspirators in the very act of concerting their plans of insurrection, the convictions which have ensued, and the still more complete developement of the treason by the confession of some of its most active and efficient conductors, have not only essentially contributed to the defeat of the rebellion, but by enabling the committee to disclose the views and machinations of the conspirators, may suggest means for securing the future tranquillity of the country.

• Your committee cannot conclude without observing, that on a review of the treason which has employed their attention, they trace a perfect coincidence, in its commencement and in its progress, its means and its objects, with that by which the government, the religion, and the happiness of France, have been destroyed; which has extended its desolating influence over some of the most prosperous and flourishing countries of Europe, and has shaken to its foundation the fabric of regular society throughout the civilized world. That the leaders of the system, in order to adapt the minds of the multitude to the purposes of their treason, have, after the example of their jacobine allies in France, left no means unemployed which the most malignant subtlety could suggest, for eradicating from amongst the working classes, every sentiment both of private and public duty—all quiet and peaceable habits, all social as well as moral obligations, it has been their object to destroy; and the more sacred the tie, the more industriously have they laboured to dissolve it: they have incited the soldier to betray his king, they have armed the tenant against the landlord, and they have taught the servant to conspire with the assassin of his master; blasting the repose and confidence of private life even in its sanctuary, and effacing every law of truth, of justice, of gratitude, and of religion, except where it has been possible to make even religion itself the perverted instrument of their execrable views. Such have been the leading principles, and the long-laboured preparatives for that rebellion from which your committee trust this country has been happily rescued; and they indulge a sanguine hope, that their present statement, authenticated as it is by such a mass of evidence, will contribute still farther to the complete re-establishment of tranquillity, by throwing the fullest light on the dangers to which the community has been exposed, and against which it is still necessary to guard.

It appears, from Dr. McNevin's evidence, in the appendix, that the reform originally required by the united irishmen 'was a democratic house of commons,' as 'they thought one aristocratic body in the state sufficient.'

Mr. Emmet declared, before the secret committee, that Ireland 'might be the happiest country in the world, if she was established as an independent republic!' This publication is truly interesting.

ART. XXV. *Report from the Committee of Secrecy, of the House of Lords in Ireland, as reported by the Right Honourable John Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor. August 30, 1798. 8vo. 53 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1798.*

THE 'lords committees,' appointed to examine the sealed papers received from the commons on the 23d of july, refer to two former reports. The first, is that of the 7th of march, 1793, relative to the

the disorders which prevailed in the years 1792, and 1793; the second, that of the 12th of may, 1797, respecting 'the numerous affiliated societies of united irishmen, in conjunction with the associated body of defenders.'

The committee further state, that they are now enabled more fully and accurately to develop the nature and extent of the treason, which had alarmed their lordships in 1793, and which has recently broken forth into rebellion, in consequence of having examined four persons who were members of the executive directory of the irish revolutionary union, all of whom had confessed, that their object was to effect a revolution.

After inquiring into the rise and progress of the society of united irishmen; the sending of Mr. Lewins, and after him Dr. M'Nevin abroad, in the character of confidential agents; the communication with France, by means of a special messenger on the part of the latter; the forbidding the use of any article of consumption liable to the excise duties, which order 'was stated to have been generally and implicitly obeyed,' the reporter continues thus:

P. 13.—'The several persons aforesaid who have so confessed themselves to have been members of the executive revolutionary directory of the irish rebels, and acknowledged their traitorous correspondence and connection with the directory of the french republic, have endeavoured to palliate this branch of their treason by ascribing it, first to their disapprobation of an act of parliament passed in the year 1796 to prevent insurrection, next to their disappointment in obtaining a parliamentary reform, and lastly by representing their disinclination to negotiate with France for a greater force than might enable them to subvert the monarchy and retain the government of this country in their own hands.

'The falsehood and absurdity of these pretences are so manifest that your committee would have thought it unbecoming to advert to them in their report, if these avowed traitors to their king and country had not in part learned thus to palliate their treason from persons of a very different description in Great Britain and Ireland, who fatally for the peace of this kingdom and the security of the british empire, have during the progress of this most foul and unnatural rebellion, from utter ignorance and misinformation on the subject, as your committee must presume, publicly and repeatedly palliated, if not justified, that system of treason which had well nigh involved this once happy and flourishing kingdom in all the miseries of the french revolution. With respect to the insurrection act your committee have only to observe that it passed into a law on the 24th of march 1796, and was not put into execution before the fourteenth of november 1796, on which day the first proclamation, which issued under the provisions of it, bears date, and that the introduction of it into the house of commons was long subsequent to the period when it appears that the connection and correspondence of the irish union with the directory of the french republic first commenced; and that it was enacted in consequence of a system of midnight murder, robbery and outrage which began in 1792, and was so matured in 1796 under the influence and direction of the irish union as nearly to depopulate a very considerable district in two

of the provinces, of every loyal and peaceable inhabitant of it. With respect to parliamentary reform your committee have to observe that it was distinctly acknowledged by the persons who in their own phrase have taken upon them to think for the people, that no reform of parliament will satisfy them which does not necessarily involve in it, the subversion of all ecclesiastical establishments protestant and popish, and the gradual separation of this kingdom from the british crown; and that no plan of reform will satisfy them short of an house of commons purely democratic. It was further alledged by the several persons who so acknowledged their traitorous connection with France, that the immediate cause of their establishing a resident agent at Paris, was the rejection of a plan of reform which was proposed in 1797 in the house of commons, which plan they said would have satisfied the people. But the palpable falsehood of this assertion appears by the journals of the house of commons; for these persons have all confessed that their resident agent was dispatched by them to Paris in april 1797, with instructions to negotiate a treaty with the directory of France; and the proposition for parliamentary reform, to the rejection of which they pretend to ascribe the mission of Lewins, was not made till the fifteenth of May 1797. As to catholic emancipation (as it is called) it was admitted by them all to have been a mere pretence from the first establishment of the irish union, and that if they had been enabled to succeed in their plan of reform and revolution it would have involved in it equally the destruction of the protestant and popish religion—The said M^r Nevin having distinctly acknowledged that the intention was to abolish all church establishment, and not to have any established religion, and that, for his own part, he would as soon establish the mahometan as the popish religion, though he was himself a roman catholic.

• With respect to their disinclination to negotiate for a french force to be sent into this kingdom of sufficient magnitude to conquer it—the idea of setting bounds to the ambition and rapacity of that power, if once enabled to establish itself here, is too absurd to deserve any notice; but it appears to your committee, that the directory of France have therefore declined to send any force to this country which will not enable them to dictate such terms to it as they may think fit, although it appears to have been urged to them, on the part of the irish rebels, particularly by lord Edward Fitzgerald, that the best expedient for accomplishing a revolution here would be, to dispatch fast sailing frigates to the coast with small bodies of troops and considerable supplies of arms and military stores together with officers qualified to discipline the irish peasantry; but from a letter supposed to be written from Paris by Lewins, the irish agent to the said lord Edward Fitzgerald, which he read, shortly before his arrest, to John Cormick, a colonel in the rebel army of Dublin, it appears that the directory of France disapproved of any such plan of carrying *their* object—the terms of the letter are: “The trustees have refused to advance the 5000l. on the security, they will not make any partial advance till they have the *whole sum* ready.”

‘ Upon a review of this subject, of the evidence which has been collected, and of all those facts of notoriety which have taken place in this kingdom for the last eight years, your committee feel themselves fully warranted to state, that there has been, during the whole of that period, a seditious and treasonable faction in this country, whose object has been to subvert the constitution in church and state, and to separate Ireland from the british crown, by inculcating the principles, and adopting the means which were successfully employed to abolish the religion, extirpate the nobility, and subvert the monarchy of France.’

The appendix contains the examination of John Hughes, which in some measure implicates Mr. Grattan: but this is fully contradicted by that of Samuel Nelson, who asserted upon oath, ‘ that he never did swear Mr. Grattan,’ and ‘ never said that he swore him.’

A paper found in the writing box of lord Edward Fitzgerald is also annexed. Whoever may have been the author, he certainly appears to have been a military man, as it contains observations relative to the management of pikes, the order of street firing, and the mode of defending towns, which no other could have detailed.

It is almost needless to add, that this is an important state paper.

ART. XXVI. *Evidence to Character; or the Innocent Imposture: being a Portrait of a Traitor by his Friends and Himself.* 8vo. 20 pages. Price 3d. Wright. 1798.

THIS is a clumsy attempt, to involve some of the first characters of this country in the guilt of perjury. o.

ART. XXVII. *The People's Answer to the late Bishop of Landaff.* By John Hinckley. 8vo. 41 pages. Price 1s. Jordan. 1798.

MR. HINCKLEY begins, by denying the bishop's ‘ independence.’ ‘ Are you not, in the first place,’ says he, ‘ like all of us, a child of predicament—a creature of circumstances? And are you independent of the fear of being placed, by a peace, in a worse predicament than you stand in at present. It is evident from your advice, you are not. For even in right reverend bosoms it is not contradictory to experience, to suppose charity begins at home. But in what does your independence consist? Is it not in a princely income, derived from the labour of us, the people; and whose stability depends on warding off that reform—the prevention of which is the object now openly avowed by all those who re-echo the ministerial cant, that the war is just and necessary? A war with a people against whom you, and your whole fraternity of priests, have raised the outcry of religion, because they have set the example of a society subsisting without a religious establishment.’

The author next attacks the bishop's system of finance, and what is not a little remarkable, while he himself strikes at all mortgaged property, by distinguishing between the debt of the government, and the debt of the nation, he blames his lordship, for proposing a tax on the funds.

He laughs at the idea of an enemy coming here for the purposes of amassing wealth, in the present state of the bank and the country, and asserts, ‘ that the whole of the exactions of the french from all their conquered

their conquered countries in the course of five years successes, does not equal the sums exacted from this country in one year by the present administration.

This pamphlet would have been more respectable, had it been less violent.

ART. XXVIII. *A Letter to Sir John Scott, his Majesty's Attorney-General, on the Subject of a late Trial in Guildhall.* By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. formerly Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge. 8vo. 33 pages. Price 1s. Sold at the Author's House, Hackney.

THE subject of this letter is connected with one of our dearest rights, the *liberty of the press*, and is therefore particularly interesting at this moment. The learning, character, and peculiar situation of the author, will also contribute to excite the public attention, more especially as the epistle now before us is addressed to one of the officers of the crown, who has recently threatened him with a criminal prosecution.

Mr. Wakefield begins by disclaiming all personal animosity. He addresses the attorney-general, 'not in the spirit of hostility and defiance, but with the firmness and æquanimity of conscious rectitude—in a language equally remote from vexation and resentment, from submission and adulation;—with an indifference to all human consequences, which might appear like affectation to a stranger, if exhibited in correspondent words.'

Great allowances ought to be, and are made by him, for the conduct of men 'bigotted by education, embarrassed by impure connections, entangled in the trammels of forms and the tyranny of precedents, under the dignified and sonorous title of, "the wisdom of our ancestors;"

(The classics of an age, that heard of none)

which are regarded by the scholastic speculators of abstract truth, as the despicable figments of unenlightened periods, and the accumulated absurdities of ignorant and interested men.'

He now alludes to the proceedings that took place during the late trial at Guildhall, during which he beheld the great law officer, to whom he addresses himself, disposed 'to wield that sword of the law,' with which he is armed, with a severity he should be extremely sorry to see exercised on himself. He also remarks, that a letter of conciliation and apology, formerly addressed to him privately in behalf of Cuthell, 'appeared to have produced the contrary effects of exasperation and resentment; and the oil of tranquillity,' adds he, 'served but to rouse the troubled ocean into a degree of fury seldom witnessed even on that element.'

After alluding to the conduct of a 'pre-eminently foul apostate,' whom in his notes he also characterizes as 'a sabbath-breaker,' the author recurs to a position of the noble and learned judge, who spoke of himself on the trial as 'having made up his mind on certain subjects;' and added, that "there was a period of life, when it became the wisdom of a man to be satisfied with his knowledge, and to shut up his understanding to all further enquiry and improvement." In opposition to such great authority, 'one SOLON, a citizen of no mean city;

city; or rather legislator to the most accomplished state for arts and letters, that has yet diffused it's radiance through the regions of intellect and science,' is happily and appositely adduced, and he offers for John Scott the alternative of siding either with the british law-giver, or the athenian judge.

The author now proceeds to object to some parts of the attorney-general's speech, which were particularly addressed to himself, and he illustrates his observations respecting the poor, by a quotation from Paley, in which, perhaps, a keen-nosed lawyer may scent as much treason, as in the apologue introduced on a former occasion, from Croxall's *Æsop*.

He also remarks, that the privilege of reply in the accuser, or as we imagine, he means, the negation of a *rejoinder* on the part of the defendant, 'is not only a most palpable violation of all speculative justice, but stands in diametrical opposition to the spirit of the english law.' He also maintains a very momentous and extensive theorem, viz. the privilege of discussing through the press EVERY TOPIC OF HUMAN CONTROVERSY, moral, political, or religious, without a single exception whatever.

———— Major rerum mihi nascitur ordo:
Majus opus moveo.

* Now,' adds he, 'I most readily acknowledge myself to be one of those inapprehensive souls, who never could descry the relation between *punishment* and *opinion*. The connection, of the *pillory* and *obedience*, of a *fine* and *silence*, of *imprisonment* and *future inactivity*, is discoverable by me, as well as by other men: but shew me, I entreat you, by some common rule, the correspondence between *fine*, *imprisonment*, and *pillory*, with *illumination*, *confutation*, and *conviction*, solid and sincere, if you are able*. It seems to me to be just as rational to investigate the mensuration of the earth's diameter by the application of a pair of scales, or to penetrate the antipodes with Herschell's telescope. *Mental conviction* and *corporeal discommodity*, *intimidation* and *knowledge*, are not converging rays, coincident at last, though at a very distant point;—are not the asymptote and its hyperbola, which indefinitely approach each other, as they are mutually extended; but are parallel lines, preserving the same respective distance for ever and for ever, without all possibility of incipient approximation through illimitable space.'

In pursuance of these ideas, Mr. W. observes, in express opposition to the opinion of Mr. Erskine, ('a man who is all illumination, all energy, all intelligence!') in the case of Williams, that it is tyranny, and usurpation, to dictate creeds and prescribe sentiments for another,

* * You and Pitt seem to be perfect *umbrians* in your notions. When a controversy arises between these people, they put on their armour, and *fight* it out with genuine hostility: and they who destroy their adversary, are deemed to have been right in their opinion. See Stobæus, eth. ecl. 10. So ye two acknowledge no umpires of truth but *pistols* and *parchments*; and if ye can but *imprison* or *kill* your men, ye call that justice.'

1. On account of prudential motives,
2. Philosophical ones,
3. Motives of justice;
4. Motives of humanity,

And, lastly: motives of religion.

After lamenting, that by the late decision at Guildhall, he had 'become, alas! the involuntary accessory to a complete annihilation of the press in this country, as far as an opposition to the measures of the present administration is concerned,' he reverts to his own case, and manfully facing the coming danger, continues thus:

'What I most cordially lament, as an evil for which compensation lies beyond my power, is the serious inconveniencies too probably impendent over those, who are totally guiltless of this ill-starred transaction in all its relations and dependencies.

'Me, me! adsum qui feci: in me convertite ferrum,
O! Rutuli! mea fraus omnis:—nihil iste nec ausus,
Nec potuit———*.

'When I read such passages as this in my rule of life: *And they departed from the presence of the council, REJOICING that they were counted worthy to suffer shame for the name of Jesus*†: what a contemptible poltroon, what an odious apostate, should I reckon myself; how unworthy the estimation of my fellow-citizens, and even life itself, were I to shrink in the hour of trial from any consequences attendant on a bold and undisguised testimony in behalf of oppressed and vilified humanity, against a system of enormous speculation, of boundless prodigality, and remorseless cruelty‡!

'Doubtless, it is a true saying, and worthy of all credence: *The spirit indeed is willing but the flesh is weak*||. Under a prosecution of that conduct which I have prescribed to myself, and from which, I trust, no errors will divert me; I had much rather, I do not dissemble, continue my lucubrations, unprofitable and discouraging as they are, in this study, than be transferred to the bridewell in *Cold-bath-fields*; whither my fellow labourers and brother libellers, *Smith and Birks*, are gone before me! and be thus excluded like them for years (HEAR, O! HEAVENS, and give EAR, O! EARTH!) from father and mother, brother and sister, wife and child, relative and friend, except by a remote view, and restrained converse, of which I have partaken, through iron gates§, with ruffians by your side, scowling ferocity

* Virgil, *Æn.* ix, 427. † Acts, v. 41.

‡ Summum crede nefas animam præferre pudori,
Et propter vitam vivendi perdere causas. Juv. viii. 83.

|| Matthew, xxvi. 41.

§ This is a literal unexaggerated fact, on which I stake my character for honour and veracity with the public. After an ocular evidence of this treatment, and other efforts for redress, I wrote to Dr. Glasse, a dignified clergyman in the church, and one of the visitors of this prison; concluding that a scholar and a christian might be induced to commiserate the condition of these booksellers.
But

ferocity and menace. But in the glorious cause of human rights and national deliverance, and to bring an odium on the measures of ungodliness and despotism, I could endure more than this, not only with cheerfulness, but with exultation.

While this pamphlet excites curiosity, it is also calculated to call forth many melancholy sensations.

We here behold a man about to undergo an expensive and perhaps rigorous prosecution on account of his opinions; but we perceive, at the same time, that he is prepared to encounter the menaced hostility, with all the firmness and intrepidity of the christian martyrs!

ART. XXIX. *Coup-d'Oeil sur le Renversement de la Suisse:—A Glance at the Subversion of Switzerland.* 12mo. 74 pages. Price 1s. Imported by De Boffe. Printed in one of the little Swiss cantons. 1798.

THE author of this little pamphlet, whose consequence and fortune have perhaps been affected by the late events in Switzerland, is filled with indignation against the victors.

According to him, the revolutionary fury is equally fatal to the cottage and the palace; to all laws and governments; to all nations and empires. This torrent, instead of being enfeebled, seems to acquire fresh vigour in it's course; and that 'perfidious philosophy,' which first projected the overthrow of France, draws an incalculable advantage from the light and petulant character of the french nation. This nation was no sooner intoxicated with the magical words, 'liberty,' 'equality,' and 'happiness,' than twenty-four millions, becoming suddenly mad, overturned the barriers that protected them, overthrew all the basis of publick felicity, and destroyed the fabrie of fourteen centuries, in the twinkling of an eye.

The conductors of this 'work of iniquity,' not calculating the rapidity of the inundation, and being utterly unable to stop it, were either carried along, or swallowed up by the stream; thus affording to posterity a memorable example of the lot merited, sooner or later, by the factious. They had all agreed to snatch the power from the hands of the legitimate sovereign, but the desire of exclusively possessing it divided them; hence arose the different parties, who by turns conquered and destroyed each other; hence a war with all the neighbouring powers, either to consolidate their usurped authority, or to occupy the minds of a people, the sources of whose wealth had been destroyed; hence the reign of blood, and the proscription of those virtuous deputies, in whom the people confided for the re-establishment of justice, and the return of order; hence, in short, that military and despotic government, which compresses the indignation of the french, and constrains them to support the yoke imposed on them.

* But of all the ravages committed by the french directory, those perpetrated on Helvetia, in a peculiar manner, excite sensibility and indignation; never was any aggression more unjust, never were means

But in vain. Nay, the doctor threatened to lay my correspondence with him before the *privy council*: an idea which met with great encouragement from me. I have the letters still by me, and at their service.

more

more perfidious, or more wicked, and history will cover with an eternal opprobrium, the monsters who have prepared, and the traitors who have produced, the ruin of this delicious country. A triple chain of mountains seemed to guarantee it for ever from corruption and rapacity. A few federate states, which for ages had preserved the manners, character, and dress of their ancestors, occupied those eminences. Sage and paternal laws, adapted to the different situations of the governed, rendered them happy; commerce, agriculture, and the arts, produced prosperity; taxes were unknown; persons and property enjoyed safety and protection; the rights of all were weighed in an equal balance; religion and morals were respected; and the excellence of the government was visible in the very faces of the peasantry.

France and Switzerland, we are here told, had been connected with each other during ages, and their treaties of alliance were scrupulously and religiously observed by both parties, until 1789, when a variety of aggressions took place, on the part of the former. In 1790, Brissot and Claviere organized a *swiss club* at Paris, in order to correspond with, and sow the seeds of division among their countrymen. In consequence of this, commotions soon began to take place in the *Pays de Vaud*, and the government of Berne was obliged to have recourse to force, in order to oblige the insurgents to return to their duty.

The most perfidious means were also resorted to, with a view to disorganize the brave battalions in the service of France; an insurrection was fomented in the regiment of Châteauneuf, and when the law had punished the guilty, the blame was attempted to be thrown on the officers, who were the organs of it, by liberating the rebellious soldiers from the galleys, and carrying them in triumph through the capital, as if they had been the martyrs of liberty, or the victims of despotism.

On the 10th of august, 1792, those heroes of Helvetia, who, in consequence of their attachment to their duty, and their oaths, had covered themselves with immortal glory, were massacred with a cold barbarity; and, during that day of horror, the word *swiss* was a sign of proscription, a sentence of death, nay, the insurgents carried their atrocity so far, as to kill the very porters in the hotels, merely because custom had given them this appellation.

In addition to this, the brave battalions of Ernest were disarmed, and ten regiments, which had served the french empire with bravery and fidelity, were dismissed with ignominy. Nay, more, the officers, that had been decorated with the order of St. Lewis, were commanded to return those marks of distinction, under the penalty of being deprived of their pensions.

Every thing announced, at that period, a design to attack Switzerland, and had this event then occurred, it would have been productive of great happiness to Helvetia, as the whole nation was indignant at the insults it had received, and time had not been given to purchase traitors, and organize factions.

The adroit Barthélemy had recourse to conciliation, and found means to communicate that spirit of tergiversation to the different cantons, which, in the end, produced their ruin. The inhabitants, affected at the perfidious attachment which he pretended to evince towards them, conceived the foolish hope of being able to maintain tranquillity,

tranquillity, and imprudently flumbered in the bosom of a delusive confidence.

Nothing could be more favourable for France than the system of neutrality adopted by Switzerland: it preserved sixty leagues of frontier, destitute of strong holds; it furnished the productions which the latter could spare; and it procured all the cattle required by the armies of the Rhine, during three years.

But, notwithstanding all this, the tranquillity of Switzerland was no longer respected, than it suited the interests of the french.

No sooner were the preliminaries of peace signed at Leoben with the emperor, than Buonaparte wished to quarrel with the swiss about the navigation of the lake, that separates their territories from the milanese. The events of the 18th of fructidor, when the excess of tyranny produced the violation of the most sacred rights, caused the directory to resume the plan of Robespierre, and the invasion and pillage of Switzerland, which had only been suspended, was at length agreed on. The war was not, however, to be undertaken frankly and openly, for this measure would have tripled the strength of the helvetic body. Recourse was to be had to different means. The apostles of sedition were sent from Paris to all parts of Switzerland, to fulfil the incendiary orders with which they were entrusted. Clubs were secretly formed, and the rabble was organized at Lausanne, Berne, Basle, Zurich, and other parts.

The perfidious Laharpe became the ambassador at Paris, and the traitor Tiller, the revolutionist Ochse, and the ambitious Bay, all joined in the subversion of their country.

Soon after this, Mengaud commenced his diplomatic career at Berne, by soliciting the dismissal of his britannic majesty's ambassador; and Bacher had before declared, that he would consider as conspirators all such as wore the crosses presented by the king of France.

When Berne sent commissioners to the *Pays de Vaud* to restore tranquillity, the directory openly protected the factious; and asserted, that the magistrates of Berne and Fribourg should be responsible, both in their persons and property, for the event.

In the mean time the agents of France were occupied in sowing the principles of disunion in the swiss army, and in persuading the soldiers, that the governors of Berne secretly approved of the revolution, and were desirous of sacrificing their own troops. Mengaud, on the other hand, endeavoured to disorganize the state, and Tiller and Bay, who had been sent to Basle as deputies, wrote to the senate, that the only way to obtain peace would be for it to overturn the government, to abdicate it's authority, and to nominate a provisional commission. They were even audacious enough to add, that, if the senate refused compliance, they would invite the burghers of Berne to rise against them.

An eloquent discourse, however, from the mouth of general d'Erlach, decided the contest, and he, accompanied by sixty officers, all members of the council, instantly rejoined the army. Tiller and Bay by this time, had, however, returned from Basle, and having obtained the consent of such of the senators as remained, the council abdicated it's authority; the army was overcome, and Switzerland fell with Berne.

We have been more copious than usual, in our account of this little pamphlet, because it is eloquently written, and is considered as an able production.

ART. XXX. *A rapid View of the Overthrow of Switzerland. Translated from the French.* 8vo. 103 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1798.

THE translator of the preceding article, who tells us in the preface that he is 'a swiss,' observes at the same time, that 'his eyes were often bedewed with tears, and sorrow preyed upon his heart, whilst he performed this painful, but (he believes) useful task.'

'His utmost ambition will be gratified,' he adds, 'if his translation is judged to be not an inanimate and imperfect copy of it's eloquent original; and if it inspires the english reader with those mingled sentiments of bitter indignation, and deep regret, which it hath excited in his breast.'

We have looked over this little pamphlet, and think that it exhibits no small degree of attainment in respect to our language.

ART. XXXI. *The Tocsin; or an Appeal to Good Sense.* By the Rev. L. Dutens, Historiographer to his Majesty, Rector of Elsdon, Northumberland, and F. R. S. *Translated from the French,* by the Rev. Thomas Falconer. 8vo. 59 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THIS *Tocsin* has been already rung at Rome, Paris, and Turin, as we learn from the preface, without producing any considerable effect. The author is full of zeal against those who may differ from him, either in respect to government, or religion; and he endeavours to overturn the credit of Voltaire and Rousseau, by abusing their conduct, rather than controverting their opinions.

ART. XXXII. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Landaff in June 1798,* by R. Watson, D. D. F. R. S. Bishop of Landaff. 8vo. 34 pages. Price 1s. Faulder. 1798.

THIS is a *political* charge, and as such only ought to be considered. The bishop himself, indeed, seems to contemplate it in this point of view, for he observes in the advertisement prefixed by way of preface, that it is, 'in some respects, a supplement to his late address to the people of Great-Britain, though it was not written with any view to publication.'

After remarking how inconsistent it would have been with the duty he owes to his clergy, and to his diocese, to desert them both in this time of general apprehension and impending danger, he tells his 'reverend brethren,' that he has hitherto declined to interfere with *their* opinions respecting public affairs. He, unquestionably, has also his own political principles, 'and how unfashionable soever they may have become,' he adds, 'I have never scrupled, and never shall scruple, to confess that those on which the Revolution was founded, and the present reigning family seated on the throne of these kingdoms, are, in my judgment, principles best calculated to protect

test the liberty and property of the subject, and to secure the honour and happiness of the sovereign.'

He, however, allows every man to use the same freedom of thinking and judging for himself, which he has used through life; he feels no dislike to any one for thinking differently from him, or has he any propensity to proselyte others to his sentiments. Indeed, all prejudices and predilections with respect to particular men; and all petty differences of political opinions, ought no longer to be mentioned: 'for the question is not now, as it has usually been, whether this or that man shall be the minister of the crown; but whether we shall have a government to be administered?—Not, whether the ministers or their opponents are the wisest and most disinterested statesmen; but whether both parties are not infinitely wiser, and more disinterested, and fitter to serve the country, than the self-erected committee of England, associated with a french directory?—The question is not now, as it was in the rebellions of fifteen and forty-five, whether we shall have a monarch of the house of Brunswick, or of the house of Stuart; but whether we shall have any monarch at all?—The question is not now, as it was in the great rebellion, whether the church of England shall be governed by presbyters, or by bishops; but whether we shall any longer have a church of any kind?'

The bishop next classes the opinions of the people with respect to the constitution of Great Britain, under three distinct heads:

1. That of those who think every thing so well arranged, that nothing can be altered for the better;

2. That of those who are apprehensive, that without a reform of parliament the government of the country will be insensibly changed from a limited to an absolute monarchy; and,

3. That of those who imagine the constitution so vitiated by corruption, that it cannot be amended, and that it ought to be changed into a republic.

He observes, that both the first and the last of these opinions are opposite to his sentiments; and he even prefers the constitution with all its real, or imaginary defects, to any republic that ever was established, either in ancient or modern times. Notwithstanding this acknowledged preference, he allows 'that some things might be altered for the better, both in church and state.' He, however, 'has not yet seen any plan of parliamentary reform, produced either by the minister or by his opponents, which, in his judgment, went to the root of the malady; and unless the reform reaches the root of the evil, the disease will be more tolerable than the remedy.'

Bish. W. next laments, that men do not possess clear ideas respecting parliamentary reform, which he distinguishes from a reform of the representation.

'Though the right of suffrage,' says he, 'should be granted, not merely to a few denizens, as was done at Athens, Sparta, and Rome, to the exclusion of nineteen twentieths of the whole inhabitants; not merely to about three-fourths of the whole people, as is now done in America; but though this right should be made universal, and the elective franchise should be extended as far as the wildest imagination can desire, and much farther than any political experience

experience can justify, yet the persons elected would still be liable to corruption. On the other hand, if the number of electors were ten times as small as it is at present, yet might the persons elected become, from an high sense of honourable reputation, and public duty, superior to corruption. Nothing is wanted but a parliament, in which every individual would decide on the concerns of the nation with as much impartiality and information, as a juror decides in a court of justice, on the concerns of his neighbour; and this impartiality, this integrity of judgment, has a closer connexion with other principles, as its cause, than with a reform in the representation. And of all the causes conducive to this end, which might be mentioned, I know of none more operative, than a conviction, that public conduct is not a matter of party, but of duty: religious principles, when properly improved, can alone resist more powerfully than they seem to do at present, or than they have ever done, in our own or in other countries, the attacks of individual avarice and ambition.

But though a better plan of parliamentary reform could be brought forward than any which I have hitherto heard of, yet must I be of opinion, that no plan ought to be attempted, or adopted, in the present crisis of the fate of the nation. When the contagion of french principles shall have been corrected by an experience of the mischief attending them; when the audacity of french ambition shall have been checked by the courage of this country; when peace shall be restored, and Europe shall be tranquillized; then, perhaps, but certainly not till then, ought the question of reform to be agitated by the legislature of the kingdom. I say by the legislature of the kingdom,—for, whenever it shall be discussed, I hope it will be weighed with impartial and comprehensive wisdom, by those who are capable of discerning its utility or inexpediency, and not decided by clamorous meetings of ill-informed or ill-designing men.

After inveighing against 'french liberty, and equality,' and exhibiting a horrid picture of the situation of a conquered country, the bishop requests his clergy, among other methods of reproof, to make use of 'the terrors of the Lord.'

In regard to the grand object of the bishop, which seems to be a resistance to a foreign yoke, all men are agreed; it is only in respect to the means he proposes, that there can be any difference of opinion. On many occasions, both his facts and arguments, in this point of view, are very questionable. Under the term 'french equality,' he seems to insinuate a community of property: but does this actually prevail in France? Or has it ever existed there? From one passage, respecting 'the union of the sexes*,' the uninformed may be led to suppose, that the ceremony of marriage has not only been altered, but has actually ceased; and from another†, it would seem, 'that the improvement of the morals of the people by religion' could not be accomplished, independently of an established church, and a clergy, stipendiaries of the state

* See page 22.

† Ibid.

Do the french actually 'strip the poorest of every thing they possess; plunder their cottages, and set them on fire when the plunder is exhausted; torture the owners to discover their wealth, &c.?'

We apprehend, that this mention of torture favours somewhat of exaggeration, and while it is our duty to defend our country from the inroad of an enemy, we conceive it to be something like a *pious fraud*, a charge from which we would wish to exempt this learned prelate, to accuse them of imaginary crimes.

On the subject of 'parliamentary reform,' the bishop has at length spoken out; he sees the evil, but wishes to defer the remedy. This is a very convenient mode of reasoning, in which, however, his lordship has been long since anticipated by every candidate for preferment in the house of commons, and even by the most thorough-paced supporters of the prerogative.

ART. XXXIII. *Interesting Suggestions to Proprietors and Trustees of Estates, respecting the Land-Tax Sale and Redemption Act.* By Simeon Pope. The third and improved Edition. 8vo. 28 pages. Richardson. 1798.

MR. Pope is astonished at the torpor with which this bill is viewed, and thinks, that it must proceed from the want of due publicity. In order to obviate this, he takes a survey of the act, and exhibits a concise account of 'the advantageous situation,' in which every land proprietor is placed under it.

P. 4.—'1st.' Says he, 'every possessor of estates hath a right, in preference to all others, to *redeem* the *land-tax* charged thereon, by transferring stocks, (the quality and amount of which shall be hereafter noticed) to the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt. The act, indeed, holds out various advantages to different descriptions of proprietors of land; but let it suffice for the present to observe, that it is most decidedly beneficial to the *actual possessors* of estates.

'2dly. The terms of such redemption to land proprietors are ten per cent. below those by which *third* persons (as they are termed in the act) can *purchase* land tax.

'3dly. The time allowed to proprietors of estates for the performance of their contract to *redeem* their land tax, is *FOUR* years—whereas *purchasers* are allowed but one.

'4thly. Land possessors, on depositing an instalment of one *sixteenth* part only of their redemption contract, have their estate henceforth wholly *FREED* and *EXONERATED* from the land tax charged thereon, and from all *further assessment* thereof, (vide act, p. 569); whereas, if such proprietors neglect to *redeem*, and suffer third men to *purchase*, in this case their estate becomes neither exonerated from land-tax, nor freed from future assessment, but liable to a surcharge. Nevertheless, it should be here noted, that the redeemer has the option of becoming entitled to every privilege of a purchaser, and continue to be assessed, with a view to take advantage of any future abatement.

'From this prominent situation of preference and superior advantage to induce proprietors of estates to *redeem* their land tax, let us now shortly advert to the terms of effecting it.—This (as the act states, page 565), "shall be by the transfer to the aforesaid commissioners of so much capital stock of public annuities, commonly called the three pounds

pounds per centum consolidated annuities, and three pounds per centum reduced annuities, as will yield an annuity or dividend exceeding the amount of the land tax so to be redeemed by one tenth part thereof."

' For instance—suppose you wish to redeem 20l. land tax—to effect this you must transfer such a sum of the *three per cents.* as will produce 22l. interest thereon, the additional two pounds being the one *tenth*, exceeding (as above required by the act) the land tax sum of twenty pounds. Now, of the capital stock, this would demand the sum of 733l. 6s. 8d.; but the present price of the *consols* and *reduced* (taking both without the dividend) being but about 48l. 10s.* will of course require only the sum of 355l. 13s. 4d. wherewith to purchase sufficient of the three per cent. stocks for redeeming 20l. land tax; which every intelligent reader must perceive is equal to the liquidation of a debt of 400l. and, consequently, a saving of eleven per cent. to such land redeemer.'

Some inaccuracies are necessarily apparent in this and every other work of a similar kind, as the calculations depend often on the price of stocks. In the foregoing quotation, the *consols* are estimated at 48l. 10s. without the dividend; since that period they have increased in price, and are of course liable to continual fluctuations.

This pamphlet is worthy the attention of such proprietors as are both able and willing to redeem the land tax.

ART. XXXIV. *An Alarm to Landholders; or the Consequences of the Bill for the Redemption of the Land Tax.* By Sir John Sinclair, Bart. President of the Board of Agriculture; as delivered in the House of Commons. Containing in Substance, all the Arguments which have been urged by Lord Sheffield, Mr. Sheridan, Sir Francis Burdett, and other Gentlemen, against the Measure. 8vo, 54 pages. Price 1s. Verner and Hood. 1798.

THE objections of Sir John Sinclair to the land-tax redemption bill were two-fold, he being hostile both to the mode, and the principle: in short, he considered it to be at *least* as exceptionable as any measure, that, to the best of his recollection, was ever suggested either by the present, or by any former minister.

He anticipated, among a variety of other evils likely to ensue, that, arising from litigation, as the land tax is sometimes to be a real estate, sometimes a personal estate, and sometimes to be converted from a real to a personal estate. This, he said, would much benefit the *profession*, 'as we may trace in it the foundation of at least ten thousand law suits, one in each parish being a very moderate calculation: and thus, adds he, 'no inconsiderable share of the remnant free property, which the landed interest will be suffered to retain in their possession, will be absorbed.'

The next animadversion is of a financial nature; and here he quotes the opinion of Sir R. Walpole, and asserts expressly in his words, that 'the best judges, the truest patriots in all countries, have been of

* Vide Tables of Rate of Redemption and Purchase, corresponding with the different Prices of Stock, p. 28.'

opinion, that of all taxes, that upon immoveable goods, and that upon land and houses, *ought to be the last resource.*'

He then accuses his successor of being 'the first chancellor of the exchequer, that ever attempted to keep the land tax at it's highest rate in time of peace, as well as in time of war, that ever ventured to propose rendering that tax perpetual; and who not only insists on perpetuating the present unequal land tax at it's highest rate, but also who threatens the landed interest with an unlimited addition to so heavy a burden.'

After this he adverts to the superiour agricultural legislation and police of Scotland; wishes the english to pass a general bill for enclosure; and recommends 'to modify tithes, so as to prevent their being a bar to improvement.'

In the course of this speech, which contains some important facts, sir John appears to be an able and determined opposer of a measure, which he considers as at once impolitic and unjust. 3.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. XXXV. *An Enquiry into the Feasibility of the supposed Expedition of Buonaparte to the East.* By Eyles Irvine, Esq. 8vo. 22 pages. Price 1s. Nicol. 1798.

THE curiosity of mankind has for some time been afloat respecting the destination of the army under Buonaparte, and every one is anxious, on this occasion, to build a theory of his own.

'Were I solemnly called on' says Mr. I., 'to answer the question, to what degree our oriental possessions are threatened by this expedition, I should be inclined to dispute its direction to that quarter. In the seizure of Malta and some of the greek islands, as stations for the french fleet, and in the plunder of Smyrna and Constantinople, if the foundation of a dynasty in Egypt limit not his cruize, its objects are probably comprised.

'In epistolary composition, his vanity and presumption have not often been equalled; but that he should seriously attempt to put in practice, what his blind admirers or envious rivals have suggested, would be to rank him with the anchorite leader of the crusade, or the errant hero of Cervantes. Buonaparte is not yet mad enough for such society; however adapted his respect for the laws of nations may prove to a marauding and piratical enterprise; such, as might suit the morality of a Barbarossa, or the approbation of regenerated France!'

Mr. I., after this, concedes the point at issue, supposes the conqueror of Italy to be destined for India, and then accompanies him, step by step, through the three different routes of Suez, Busrah, and Ipahan.

1. He supposes him to have arrived at Alexandria, to have entered Rosetta, and even allows a triumphal march into Grand Cairo; but still 'the isthmus of Suez is doomed to be the boundary of this vaunted expedition on that side, until Egypt shall possess shipping in the Red sea, of tonnage equal to the transportation of such an army, and manned with seamen, skilful enough to navigate the indian ocean!'

The

The despicable craft that frequents her ports, if we except a few annual ships from the british settlements in India, being either undecked or unmanageable; framed merely to thread the shallows on the arabian coast, and unable to explore the open sea.

And even with ample means of this nature in his hands, the enterprise must be carried by a *coup de main*, before the government of Bombay could be apprised of the danger, or send her marine, competent without his majesty's ships to intercept and destroy the largest transports—to the straits of Babelmandel.

If, on the other hand, it could be judged possible for the isles of France, or the ports of Tippoo Sultan, to furnish sufficient tonnage for the purpose, and to those in the secret such an idea is absurd—what would be the result? The preparations for such an enterprise could not be concealed from the vigilance of the british commanders; and from a fleet of twelve sail of the line, and as many frigates, that are stationed between the Cape of Good Hope, and the Ganges, there is little doubt but an adequate force would be detached, to counteract the designs of the enemy. And this is on the supposition, that timely intelligence could not be sent by land or sea, of the impending danger. In either case, this position must be established, that while Great Britain is master of the sea, an invasion of India, by the way of Suez, is physically out of the question.

2. Having thus disposed of the first route, he points out the still greater difficulties attendant on the second, which is 'to the port of Scanderoon, and by Aleppo and the great desert, to the gulf of Persia.' The chief obstacle to be encountered here, by an army, is 'thirst,' for 'allowing that the arab tribes fled at its approach, that the french conqueror, and the *samil*, were held equally destructive to life, what chance would his followers have to escape the perils of the waste, when the wells at the various stages would not suffice to supply a draught to each soldier, much less to replenish his skins for a succeeding day.'

However, were even this difficulty overcome, a desert of one thousand miles passed in three months, and Busrah taken, the mountainous coast of Persia still presents an insurmountable tract of near two thousand miles to the Ganges. And were an attempt made, to proceed by sea from Busrah, the vicinity of the Bombay marine would easily enable it to block up the gulf of Persia.

3. Were Buonaparte to attempt Alexander's route from Phœnicia to the Indus, he would have to march over a country so depopulated and barren, as to be unable to afford sustenance or shelter to the wandering tribes of arabs who infest it. But, allowing the Euphrates and Tigris to be crossed, and the persian territories overrun, 'a region of nearly twice the extent of what he had already passed, would present itself to the ardor of Buonaparte,' the afghans, the seiks, and other independent hordes, would unite to harass his march, cut off his provision, and intercept his retreat. If a portion of his army, after all, should be fortunate enough to reach the Ganges, it would find the navigation and banks of that river in the possession of the english, almost from the imperial 'city of Delhi to the bay

bay of Bengal,' and an army of upwards of one hundred thousand disciplined europeans and natives, is then to be vanquished.

It must be owned, that Mr. I has pointed out a variety of obstacles to an expedition to the east; whether these can be overcome, or whether indeed the project itself will be attempted, are secrets, with which at this moment we cannot pretend to be acquainted.

ART. XXXVI. *Observations on the Expedition of General Buonaparte to the East, and the Probability of its Success considered. To which is added, a brief Sketch of the present State of Egypt; an historical Account of Alexandria; the two Harbours of that City accurately delineated, its former Splendor and present State contrasted; with some Remarks on its local Importance should it become the Mart of the East: together with a few Particulars relating to the Navigation of the Red Sea.* By the Editor of the History of Peter III, and Catharine II, of Russia. 8vo. 89 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Cawthorn. 1798.

AFTER conjecture had been nearly exhausted, the fact is at length ascertained, that Buonaparte is arrived in Egypt, which, even at this time, according to the present writer, 'is in possession of a considerable trade with Arabia, by the Red Sea; with Abyssinia and the interior of Africa, by the Nile; and with Turkey and Europe by the Mediterranean. It was ascertained, by the custom-house accounts of Cairo, in the year 1783,' adds he, 'that business was carried on in that city to the amount of between six and seven millions sterling. Its exports in rice, corn, flax, and coffee, are nearly two millions. Considering Egypt merely in a commercial point of view, it must, therefore, hold out vast attractions to a nation which has already formed the project of occupying exclusively the commerce of the Levant. A project, the execution of which is singularly favoured by the possession of the venetian islands; by the french influence over all Italy; and, lastly, by the capture of Malta. But the views of France, probably, extend much farther; and she may entertain hopes of carrying on trade with the East Indies, by a way much shorter than the present one, and which, if equally safe, would, doubtless, be preferred. This idea was in agitation long before the revolution, and a plan to that effect was actually presented by Baron de Tott to the marechal de Castries.'

Were this scheme to be realised, a communication would, of course, be opened with the East Indies by the Red Sea, the navigation of which, we are told, cannot be dangerous, as it is at present frequented by the turks, who are but indifferent seamen. The number of vessels employed by them does not, however, exceed thirty; but if Egypt were in the hands of the french, they would of course make themselves masters of the Strait of Babel-mandel, construct a fort at Berenice, and, perhaps, succeed in clearing and refitting that of Suez. These two towns would be the store-houses, from which merchandize might be conveyed by canals to Cairo and Alexandria.

'With respect to cutting a canal through the isthmus of Suez, it is evidently impossible,' continues the author, 'from the nature of

of the soil, without mentioning any other obstacle. But this difficulty might, in some degree, be obviated, by restoring some of the canals which formerly existed, such as the canal of Suez to the lake *Amer*, and that from the lake to the *Nile*, (the remains of which are still visible) and by making another from Berenice towards Coptos. Vessels of considerable burden could not navigate these canals; but it would be a sufficient advantage to have the merchandize transported by small craft. The cities, which have been mentioned, would become magazines, whence all the merchants of Europe might draw the different articles of the East-India trade. Timber-yards, docks, and arsenals, might be formed at Berenice, for the purpose of establishing a naval force; for though there are no forests or woods in that part, ships might be easily built at Toulon, constructed in such a way as to take to pieces, which being properly numbered, would be conveyed by sea to Alexandria, and from thence, by canals, to the new port in the Red Sea. One ship would be capable of carrying seven others in this manner. This scheme of first building ships, and afterwards putting them on board of others, may appear ridiculous enough at first sight; but it is confidently asserted, that a model of the kind has been actually constructed at Toulon. A ship has been built there, that divides into eight parts. The execution of the whole plan would, however, require at least a period of thirty years.

The following are two distinct routes to India, with the distances annexed; the first is by the Red Sea, the second by the Gulf of Persia:

	Miles.
From Toulon to the island of Malta, s. e. distant about	600
Malta, the port of Alexandria lies e. s. e. distant	840
Alexandria across the Nile to Suez, the course is s. e. by e. distant	180
Suez through the Red Sea to Babel Mandel, the course is s. e. by s. distant	1200
The straits of Babel Mandel to Mangalore, the course is nearly east, distant	1700
	<hr/> 4520

Should Buonaparte proceed to Alexandretta, and take the route of the Gulf of Persia, then

From Toulon to Malta is about	—	—	600
Malta to Alexandretta	—	—	1050
Alexandretta to Aleppo	—	—	75
Aleppo to Bagdat	—	—	390
Bagdat to Bussorah	—	—	240
Bussorah to Muscat	—	—	630
Muscat to Mangalore	—	—	1210

Complete distance by the Gulf of Persia 4195

This little pamphlet contains a number of interesting particulars respecting Egypt, selected from the greek writers, and therefore will be read, at this time, with a considerable degree of interest. The modern names of places are greatly disfigured in it.

O.

ART. XXXVII. *Virtue's Friend; consisting of Essays, first published periodically, on Subjects connected with the Duty and Happiness of Mankind.* Vol. I. Small 12mo. 210 pages. Stockport, Clarke; London, Knott.

MORAL essays on various subjects, originally published in numbers, intended to promote the cause of truth and virtue. These essays, if not distinguished by any originality of conception or brilliancy of composition, are pervaded by a vein of good sense and just principle.

ART. XXXVIII. *A Manual, or little Book for growing and grown Persons; containing, 1. Institution of Marriage. 2. Duties of Husbands and Wives. 3. Of Polygamy. 4. Divorce. 5. Parental Authority. 6. Duties of Parents. 7. Duties of Children. 8. Duties of Brethren. 9. Duties of Sisters. 10. Duties of Masters. 11. Duties of Servants. 12. On Government; its Origin and Extent. 13. Power of the Magistrate. 14. Measures of Submission. 15. Love of our Country.* Extracted from the Works of the late Learned and Reverend Henry Grove. 12mo. 68 pages. Price 9d. Smeeton.

THE moral and political works of the late Mr. Henry Grove are so generally known, that the simple annunciation of this manual, which is compiled from them, is sufficient. This little work 'is printed cheaply, for the purpose of a more general circulation, the advantages of which need no other pointing out, than observing that a great portion of our present frivolity and fickleness proceeds from the loads of unserviceable reading increasingly disseminating among us.' Advertisement.

ART. XXXIX. *Sentimental and humorous Essays, conducive to Economy and Happiness. Drawn from common Sayings and Subjects, which are full of common Sense, the best Sense in the World.* By Noah Webster, Author of the 'Effects of Slavery,' &c. in the Manner of Dr. Franklin. 12mo. 64 pages. Price 1s. Arch. 1798.

WE are pleased to see the popular and simple style revived, which Dr. Franklin introduced, of communicating useful instruction, and giving hints, intelligible to the lowest understandings, on the best mode of conduct in common life. We shall not flatter Mr. W. by placing him on an equality with his great prototype; at the same time we are very ready to allow, that he has given many valuable and useful maxims. This little work has experienced a rapid progress in America, where it was published under the title of the 'Prompter:' this title, the present editor did not conceive sufficiently explanatory of the nature of the work, and has therefore altered it, we think unnecessarily, to that which we have already copied.

We have noticed Mr. W.'s other works in a former volume. See *Analyt. Rev.* Vol. xxvi, p. 174. N.

FOR THE
ANALYTICAL REVIEW,
FOR SEPTEMBER, 1798.

RETROSPECT OF THE ACTIVE WORLD:

OR,

A GENERAL REVIEW OF DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS,
AND PRACTICAL CONTROVERSIES, AND CONTESTS.

It may not be unnecessary, we understand, to remind some of our readers, that our plan does not admit of details, or of such full accounts of discoveries and inventions as are to be found in journals, in which the progress of these, and the chief questions agitated among learned bodies, and the world of letters, and science in general, form the only object. Far less do we pretend to give such descriptions of discoveries and inventions, whether chemical or mechanical, as might lead directly, and without more minute information, to any practical operation. To avoid unnecessary repetitions, we refer to our preface or introduction to this monthly paper on the Active World, in our number for January, 1796.

The circumstances of the times naturally lead men of inventive genius to new contrivances relating to the business of war. In France they have made several improvements relating to the embarkation and disembarkation of troops, and the expeditious crossing of rivers: in our own country, great attention is paid, and much ingeniousness displayed in the improvement of navigation, and naval architecture.

Captain Schanks, whose name we have had several occasions of mentioning with just respect, is now employed in the construction of a ship of war of sixty guns, at the expense of government, in a form so solid, compacted, and of such materials, as will not only be perfectly water tight, and fitted to live in all weathers, but also to prevent splinters in action, which, it is well known, are the great instruments of destruction. The ball will either remain in the vessel, or go straight through, making one hole without rending the board, and occasioning splinters. In the latter case, it will be easy to fill the hole with a plug. In the former, the ball itself will be an excellent plug. We hope to be able to give a fuller account of this improvement in our next number.

But

But it is not to matters relating to war alone, that the french republic confine their ingenious investigations. The national institute for the promotion of arts and science directs the genius of the nation by the proposal of ingenious and useful questions, and encourages it's application by a fair distribution of prizes. For example, the last question proposed in geography, is, 'To determine what are the grand revolutions which have taken place on the globe, and which are either indicated or proved by history?' In moral philosophy, 'What are the institutions best calculated to form the morals of the people?' In physiology, 'What are the uses of the liver in the different classes of animals?' The republic has also fitted out more than one expedition for the improvement of natural knowledge.

In chemistry, certain experiments made on atmospheric air, at the height of 400 toises [2400 feet] in a balloon, strongly confirm the doctrine, that the air of the high regions is more impure than at the earth's surface.

The studies of chemistry and mineralogy are continued with unremitting assiduity in Germany. At Vienna, Mr. Jacquin, professor of chemistry, has made some curious experiments on the properties of different gasses, considered as sonorous bodies; he took 'a glass bell furnished at the top with a brass cock, such as that used for filling bladders with gas, and made the internal aperture of the cock to communicate with a small tin flute about six inches in length. This bell being placed in the pneumatic tube, and filled with gas of any kind, a bladder with a cock, and filled with the same gas as the bell, was fitted to the cock of the bell, and by pressing the bladder gently, the flute was made to sound.' Comparative experiments were repeated in this manner with atmospheric air, oxygen gas, hydrogen, the carbonic acid, and nitrous gas. The strength of the sound was always the same: but compared with that in atmospheric air, the oxygen gas gave half a tone lower: azotic gas, prepared different ways, gave almost always a semi-tone lower; hydrogen gas gave nine or eleven tones higher; the carbonic acid gas a third lower; and the nitrous gas almost the same. A mixture of oxygen gas, and azotic gas, in the proportion of atmospheric air, gave again the tone of the last mentioned air, that is to say, a semi-tone higher than each of the compound gasses alone. As long as the two gasses were not uniformly mixed, there was a frightful noise. Of these interesting experiments, which differ intirely from those of Dr. Priestley, an account is promised by professor Chladni at Wirtemberg, already celebrated on account of several discoveries in the theory of the phenomena of sound.

This application of the discoveries of chemistry to the analysis or theory of sound is a very striking proof and illustration of what is observed for the consolation of mankind, with such perfect, even with mathematical precision, by professor Maclaurin, in his admirable work on the newtonian philosophy, namely, that our knowledge advances, not as the discovery of new facts or truths advances, but, as these afford many new points of comparison with those already known, in a much higher proportion.

There

There is no european government, that has shown for many years greater encouragement to literature and philosophy, than that of Denmark; which, beside different societies for the promotion of knowledge, as, the Royal Society of Copenhagen, the Royal Icelandic Society, &c., sends out four missionaries for the advancement of arts and sciences every year, each to a different quarter; or perhaps we should rather say department of Europe—one to the russian empire: one to Germany, including the Netherlands and Holland; one to France and Italy; and one to Great-Britain, and the dependent isles. Among the questions proposed this year by the Royal Society at Copenhagen, and for the most satisfactory answers to which they give a gold medal worth 100 rixdollars, we find one which is curious, and which marks the disposition of nations, who have passed their meridian, like individuals in the same predicament, to look back to former times, ‘What nations discovered America, and kept up an intercourse by sea with that country before the norwegians? How far did the discoveries of the norwegians in America extend towards the south?’ The following question too, by the same society, is of a historical nature: it is not, however, like the former, merely antiquarian; as it may serve to instruct mankind in the just method of investigation in natural philosophy, and all subjects: ‘What are the most remarkable steps in the progress which practical philosophy has made, from the time it was brought into a regular system, down to the present period?’ This comprises what is most important in the history of natural philosophy: a subject, which it gives us pleasure to announce, has occupied for many years, and still continues to occupy, as far as other avocations will permit, the abilities of the present professor of mathematics in the university of Edinburgh.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

IN the course of the present month two events have happened, of a very interesting nature, to France, to Germany, to Europe, and the whole world. Buonaparte has seized Egypt; and the court of Berlin has refused to accede to the proposed union of Russia, Austria, and England. The first opens to the french republic objects paramount even to it's ambition: the second announces the convulsion and fall of the german empire: both are pregnant with many important consequences, far beyond the reach of human anticipation and conjecture. Conformably to these two great events, the public mind is occupied chiefly with two great questions. 1. What are the ulterior views of Buonaparte and the directory? 2. What means are to be employed by the independent powers of Europe, for the purpose of checking the progress of french domination? The first of these will, by and by, perhaps, be divided into two questions. Meanwhile, we proceed in our speculation, on the supposition, that the policy and views of the directory, and Buonaparte, are the same: and that these are no other than the establishment of universal dominion on the ruins of all the remaining governments of Europe.

In

In charging the DIRECTORY OF FRANCE with designs of such magnitude and oppression, we do not mean to load them with terms of reproach, as unavailing as they would be unworthy of liberal discussion. We are even ready to admit, that the actual position of the rulers of France, both with regard to their own nation, and those with whom they are at war, is extremely embarrassing. They naturally look to their own safety; and must wish to retain the acquisitions, and to justify the expenditure of the revolution.

Arrogant and presumptuous, and highly impracticable as a plan of universal dominion may appear, they who treat it with derision ought to reflect on the limits which the new republic has secured, and the extraordinary character of the nation who compose it. The french nation, from early civilization, from populousness, vivacity of disposition, and a restless spirit of enterprize, accompanied by great powers of genius in the arts of war and peace, becomes the most formidable community, in mass, that exists on the face of the globe. All the ambition and talents of such a people have now found their field of occupation. The common soldier expects to be a general, the peasant a legislator; and these are now perusing, with avidity, the histories of the ancient republic of Rome. Defeats to such a nation are new incentives to victory; and a want of resource is but a title to plunder; while the attacks of enemies, combined on the ground of old treaties and exploded diplomacy, serve only to bind and compress the enormous dependencies of their empire. So much for the directory and the french nation in general. With regard to

BUONAPARTE; this penetrating politician, aware that this is a war of finance; and that, if England should make it a war in defence of private property, and public, or, in other words, the rights of men and of nations, it must, on the side of France, soon be over; meant to settle the affairs of the continent at Rastadt, on the same principles as he had done those of Italy, at Campo Formio. The directory were jealous. The jacobins prevailed. Invasions were menaced, and ready to be carried into execution. The british nation, from one extremity of the island to the other, rushed into arms, and set them at complete defiance. Buonaparte changed his battery. As he could not take India, the great spring of our wealth, in London, he resolved to shut it out from England, by the possession of Egypt; whether, by making that country, so singularly and happily situate, only a stepping stone to the coast of Malabar, where he might be joined by Tippo; or whether by making it a permanent settlement, by colonizing it, improving it, and raising all those productions in which it is so fertile, and which are proper to countries in the same latitude, in different parts of the world; by uniting the indian trade to that emporium by means of canals, harbours, and forts, on the Red Sea; and, on the whole, gradually, and by a course of harmonized actions, to turn the tide of commerce in favour of France, and against England. His last project is the most natural and solid; but it requires much time and perseverance. The first, to go directly to India, though romantic and full of danger, is most congruous both to the character of Buonaparte and the french nation. Wherefore, we conclude, that this is the true plan: although its execution must depend on the support and re-inforcement, that may be received from France; a matter that will depend on many accidents; and which, we hope, has been settled, at least for some time, by the english fleet under admiral Nelson. We now
return

return to the second of the two questions noted at our outset, namely, What means are to be employed for the purpose of checking the progress of french domination?

They who reason on the events of the day may expect wonders in succession from the destruction of a particular armament; an approaching interior explosion, or some new leagues to effect a counter revolution in France, and get possession of it's capital. But miracles are not to be expected. Let us fairly examine and estimate the enemy to be resisted; his views, his force, and his advantages.

The new government of France have long acted and continue to act on, the political plan, by which the romans overturned and subjected the ancient world. It is given as an instruction to all their foreign ministers. Our readers will find it *verbatim* in the 6th chapter of Montesquieu on the Aggrandizement of the Roman Republic. Every ally or opponent of the new republic will find in that chapter some state of antiquity, to a certain degree, similarly situate with itself; a matter which we shall take occasion to notice, according to what we have already engaged, in a future number. As a primary part of this plan, all Italy is to be reduced, and to become to the french what Gaul was to the old roman republic. Turin is seized, Genoa is garrisoned, the army in Rome is doubled, and the rising marine of Naples, by inviting the directorial grasp, will involve that noble kingdom in the same fate with Venice. Italy produces all that is requisite for the creation and manning of a powerful navy. Corfu, Malta, and Egypt, open to the right and left the out-ports for undermining the power of England in the East, and exciting rebellion in Hungary, Poland, and the southern provinces of Austria. Were Buonaparte and his army taken or destroyed, another leader would start up to conduct another army: the plan of conquest on conquest is formed; and a rising generation of new proconsuls looks forward to it's fortunes and it's fame.

In the mean time, nothing is considered as done for the effectual security of the Rhine, as a northern frontier, till this defence be strengthened by the addition of the Elbe, and England be shut out from every port to the south of the Baltic.

They who would treat these designs as visionary have not followed the progress of the french republic, and forget to contrast her present extension and strength with her dubious existence, when she could scarcely be found on the chart of nations, or seen out of the gulf of bankruptcy.

To facilitate these mighty projects, and encourage their prosecution, the directory have found a secret, to which little attention has been paid by their political opponents: it is, that the mass of the people, in every country which they have overrun, do not regret the overthrow of their ancient rulers, and are not disposed to make any counter-revolutionary exertions to replace them. The nobles, who had left the protection of their peasants to the collectors of rents, living at their ease in cities; the bishops and churchmen, who forget that their revenues were originally bestowed as funds of piety and charity; the magistrates, who exercised their authority for their own purposes; the governors of provinces and ministers, who attended more to the intrigues of courts than the sufferings of the poor; and, finally, a swarm of upstart capitalists, engendered by the

the operations of finance and the demands of luxury: all these have been overthrown in the conquered countries, and the mass of the people with indifference, at least, often with satisfaction, have witnessed their fall. And who are they that have succeeded them? Persons whose existence is in the hands of the republic, and who have every interest in the continuance of it's protection! Hence it is, that we hear of no popular commotions in Flanders, in the provinces of the Rhine, in Switzerland, or Italy. In feudal and religious times, in times of greater purity of manners, this would not have been the case: a chilling selfishness pervades, in the present time, all ranks, from the court to the cottage!

A plan of ambition so deeply founded in principles, as that of France, is not to be resisted but by another system founded as deeply in principles. As selfishness is the great cause of the present evils, so let us have recourse to selfishness also, or rather to a reasonable self-love, for the cure!

‘ Our bane and antidote are both before us!’

By maintaining the cause of private property, public credit, and the rights of nations, let us turn the artillery of the anarchists on themselves, and fight them with their own weapons.

We have used our best exertions to illustrate and recommend the only basis, on which an union might be formed to disconcert the plans of the Directory. We are led to believe, from what we read daily in the speeches of some of the members of the council of five hundred, that a party is forming on that basis in the heart of France: a party of moderate, prudent, and just men, whose aim it is to connect the liberty and property of the people, with a system of legal taxation, and the independence of their representatives. We see with pleasure the patriotic meetings of

AMERICA

espousing the cause of nations, and making that cause the subject of their public toasts. We would fain indulge a hope, that our own government will see the advantage and glory of making that cause, and not acquisition and monopoly, the declared object and end of the present war. This hope is not founded on any wisdom in our present administration, who seem to have no other system than that of fighting at all adventures, as long as they are able to squeeze the other million out of the people, as don Sangrado found a specific for all diseases in letting blood; but in a necessity that must soon become palpable to the whole nation. If our present rulers, whatever happen, must always be ministers, they will, however, yield to the bent of public opinion and public spirit.

SPAIN

has had leisure to reflect, and wants only to see the adoption of a proper concert among the independent powers, to act a proper part for it's own and the general security.

Holland is not unsimilarly situated.

ITALY

hangs in suspense on the events of war in the Mediterranean.

GERMAN EMPIRE.

The great rival states which compose this empire, as well as the inferior and dependent branches, have exhibited, in their negotiations

at

at Rastadt, all the symptoms of an incapacity to resist the power and artifice of a republic such as that we have just delineated. Their best security is the temporary convenience of the Rhine as a boundary to the new republic, while she is carrying on her projects against Italy, India, and, in due time, though she may judge it politic to temporize for a while and make fair pretences and professions, against the sublime Porte*.

In this security the northern states of Germany will seek the safety of the day. And unless proper address be used to form a general union, on a ground from which no sovereign or minister would venture publicly to withhold his support and contingent, the french agents at Rastadt, by working on reciprocal interests and jealousies, will sap the foundation of every state in the empire.

There is not a minister in Germany, however timid, or improperly influenced, who would publicly dare to advise his court to withhold his participation or contingent from the general defence of the common cause of property, and the constitutional rights of nations. Were it therefore possible for a *conclusum* to be drawn up and espoused in this spirit, the envoys of the revolutionary republic would suddenly discover the inefficacy of their intrigues. The directory would soon be forced, either to throw off the mask of republicanism, or to revert to a system of moderation, and of proper dependence on their constituents; who, in return, would be obliged to yield to the real wishes of the great majority of the french nation, who sigh for an honourable and general peace.

On the adoption of such a plan, the states of the german empire would only have to make their appeal to the justice of the french nation; and, to represent, that, failing of that justice, they had concerted their common security with the other independent states of both Europe and America: all of whom had entered into a general confederacy for the protection of property and the rights of nations; and who unanimously wished the french nation to realize the security of their own property and national independence within the best and most convenient limits.

Austria has now to regret, in the difficulties which Prussia opposes to a proper union for the general defence, the fatal policy of Catherine the great, which raised every obstacle against the original union established for great and wise purposes by Leopold with the court of Berlin.

Prussia, in certain events, may become the dupe of her own caution. The real hatred and designs of the directory are pointed against England, and to the separation of the british government from it's intercourse with the north of Germany. The french have fortified Dusseldorf, and are in force towards the north, where they may be supported by the co-operation of Holland. Troubles will be created to Prussia in her polish acquisitions, and it will not always be convenient for her to keep a very large army on her western frontier. The habits, which produced the treaty of Campo Formio, may revert to other arrangements, and moments may be seized when the direc-

* It is probable, that the french have promised homage to the Porte, and a coercion of the beys in Egypt.

tory would find it their more immediate interest to strike at the north of Germany, and trust to the labours of Sieyes with the professors of Brandenburg.

Silesia, in such an event, might again be left as a temptation, like Venice, to some imperial politician. In such a mixture of possible events, a wise court would seek it's own in the general interests and security of nations.

NORTHERN POWERS.

RUSSIA appears to be perfectly awake to the rapid progress of the revolutionary system, and will, no doubt, espouse with vigour any general and solid plan for opposing it. An able minister on the part of England, at Constantinople, would, no doubt, avail himself of the invasion of Egypt, the rebellion of Passiwan Oglou, and the revolutionary spirit excited in the Morea, to show to the Porte, as well as to Russia, the necessity of an alliance under the reciprocal guarantee of the emperor of Germany and Great Britain. Russia and Sweden might, perhaps, be brought to accede. And the combined fleets of England, Russia, and the Porte, might give countenance and support to the oppressed states of Italy.

But such combinations are not to be produced but by some animating soul of the first order of human beings, unfortunately not to be found at present, for aught that yet appears, on any of the thrones, or in any of the cabinets of Europe! while the great talents, produced by such a republic as France, raise from their concentrated councils a new and stupendous fabric on the ruins of the old governments.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND

Have now before them, in the confusions of the latter, a complete mirror of the folly of aristocratical and legislative party spirit. The season is over when this spirit might range, as heretofore, in disputes about the loaves and fishes. Those parties have effectually succeeded in Ireland, in lessening the respect which should be always maintained among the people for their rulers. But it is to be hoped, from the vigour and temper, which have been lately displayed in the administration of Irish affairs, that the enemy will discover a miscalculation in his plans, and that while he is disturbing his neighbours, he will find cause to reflect on the re-action of his proceedings against his own domestic tyranny. The menaces of the directory have armed the people. Every purse is open, and every arm stretched out for the national security. While we have cause to deplore and to blush for the weakness of government, if not in precipitating us into a war, yet certainly in neglecting the proper occasions and means of bringing it to an end, we have equal cause of triumph in the spirit and patriotism of the nation.

The rebellion in Ireland, and the negotiations of the leaders of that rebellion with the revolutionary enemy of Europe, must convince the real proprietors in Ireland, of the indispensable necessity of an union between England and Ireland, like that which has contributed to the prosperity of England and Scotland. It is to so salutary, beneficent, and noble a purpose, that an able ministry, like that of queen Anne, would turn the knowledge acquired in the troubles of an expensive and ruinous war.